THE

International Record

OF

Charities and Correction

Edited by FREDERICK HOWARD WINES

VOL. I., NO. 5 JULY, 1886 | G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK AND LONDON | PUBLISHED MONTHLY 10 CTS. PER NO. $1.00 PER YEAR

ABOUT OURSELVES.

The relations of confidence and friendship between the RECORD and its readers are such, that we do not mind telling them the truth, that its establishment is a work of great difficulty. Of its success we have not the slightest doubt, but to ensure it will require all the support which our friends can give us.

The trouble with all special journals is that they exist on the horns of a dilemma. To whatever extent they are popularized, they lose their value for specialists; while they are, if strictly confined to their appropriate work, apt to be heavy, and not of sufficient general interest to secure a paying list of subscribers.

In the case of a journal dealing with the condition and needs of the criminal and unfortunate classes, this difficulty is heightened by the fact that men naturally and instinctively shrink from the contemplation of what is disagreeable. They want to know or believe that the suffering are well cared for, and are willing to give money freely for this purpose, if only they themselves can escape personal contact with the objects of their sympathy and beneficence.

The number of those really interested in the classes whom the RECORD represents is growing, but, after all, it is comparatively limited.

Our aim in starting this periodical is to interest as many as possible in the work. But while we wait for the accomplishment of this desirable end, the paper is published at a loss. Consequently, for want of money with which to pay for the collection of news and for original articles by competent writers, the responsibilities and labors of the editor are necessarily great. He receives no compensation whatever for his services, which are gratuitous and are rendered in love, from a sense of duty, believing that in time they will bear fruit. The duties of his office as secretary of the Illinois Board of Public Charities are arduous and engrossing. The publication of the RECORD entails much additional care. He therefore appeals for help of every description—other than pecuniary aid.

There are other special difficulties upon which we will not dwell, growing out of the apathy and indifference of those directly connected with charitable and correctional work, which we hope to overcome.

Meanwhile our readers must be patient, if we do not fully meet their expectations. One man cannot do all that is requisite to make a paper what it should be, and aims to be. You can make it better, if you will. Supply what you think it lacks.

We hope to make it apparent:

That the care of the criminal and unfortunates is a profession, which requires for its development a high degree of ability, force, and learning.

That a lamentable amount of ignorance exists, even among those who have charge of charitable and correctional enterprises.

That this ignorance may be overcome by study.

That the entire charitable and correctional work of the country (and of the world) is one work, with numerous branches; and that those who are engaged in it, in any capacity, are co-workers, between whom there should exist the largest possible mutual confidence and coöperation.

That the relief of suffering is an essential part of religion, and that the command to heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, and cast out devils, is part of the same commission as the command to preach the gospel.

That Christian unity is best promoted by active participation in humanitarian work.

That the protection of the weak and the elevation of the degraded is the highest function of government.

That much of our present legislation respecting crime and other social evils is crude and inoperative, if not contrary to correct principles.

That the financial burdens imposed by the existence and growth of social evils are so great that every owner of property is directly interested in their suppression and prevention.

That for success in the effort to limit their extension, united and organized effort is essential.

That every man, woman, or child who will assist to bring about any needed reform is of use, and will be welcome to the ranks of those engaged in this difficult undertaking, regardless of any political or religious opinions which he may hold.

Those who believe that these are legitimate and profitable aims are urged to come to our help, by subscribing for the RECORD, by aiding to extend its subscription list, and by contributing to its columns.

DESPISED POVERTY.

The physician of an almshouse in Illinois calls our attention to the following lines from the third satire of Juvenal:

> Nil habet infelix paupertas durius in se
> Quamquod homines ridiculos facit.

So thought Solomon, when he wrote: "The poor is hated even of his neighbor, but the rich hath many friends. All the brethren of the poor do hate him; how much more do his friends go far from him; he pursueth them with words, yet they are wanting to him." And again: "There was a little city, and few men within it; and there came a great king against it, and besieged it, and built great bulwarks against it. Now there was found in it a poor wise man, and he by his wisdom delivered the city. Yet no one remembered that same poor man. Then said I, Wisdom is better than strength; nevertheless the poor man's wisdom is despised, and his words are not heard."

In the Ohio legislature was a member who was quite sure that the institutions of that State were not managed as they should be. He was placed on the committee to examine and report upon them. The superintendent of one of the hospitals of the insane, having been informed in advance of this gentleman's critical spirit, took especial pains to show him every thing and call his attention to whatever might interest him on the occasion of the visit paid to the hospital by the committee. At last the party reached the basement. There he saw a steam-pipe protected by a felt covering. "What is that?" "That is a steam-pipe." "Oh, yes, made of india-rubber, I suppose."

OUR LETTER-BOX.

The RECORD constantly improves, and is the best publication of the kind I have ever seen. F. B. SANBORN.
Boston, Mass., June 15th.

I have received the RECORD, and must congratulate you on its appearance and character. It commands confidence at the first glance, and improves on examination.
JOHN P. ALTGELD.
Chicago, Illinois, June 8th.

THE INTERNATIONAL RECORD has come regularly, and in such fine dress, that we must say that it is "quite English," if that is any compliment. But I feel that I can no longer refrain from expressing admiration of the work of the editor. This journal must soon fill an existing hiatus in its special field of labor, and I shall hope to find time to assist in a feeble way the work so well begun.
SAMUEL SEXTON, M.D.
New York, May 29th.

It is odd, that we have been incepting a journal of the same character as the RECORD in this country, during the last two years. The first number of this journal has not yet been published, but the scheme is in a forward state, and will, I think, soon become an established fact. Should this be so, I will not fail to send you full particulars, and I shall meanwhile be happy to coöperate with you, to the utmost extent in my powei, to make your undertaking a success also.

I propose to publish my book on "The Hospitals and Asylums of the World" at the beginning of next year, and I should be glad to have all the information obtainable concerning American hospitals. HENRY C. BURDETT.
The Lodge, Portchester Square, W., London, England, May 13th.

We take pleasure in complying with the request of M. Aimé Humbert, that we should exchange with the *Journal de Bien Public*, published at Neuchâtel, 19 Rue du Château. M. Humbert, late director of the Gymnase, was at one time ambassador from Switzerland to Japan, and is the author of a book entitled "Japan Illustré." The Journal, now in its eleventh year, is devoted to works of charity and relief, to social economy, popular education, and to the welfare and rescue of the poor and fallen, especially of the weaker sex. It is the official organ of the Association of Swiss Ladies for the Improvement of Public Morals, and also of the International Union of Friends of Young Girls. The latter organization extends to eighteen different nations, and has a membership of 1,800 ladies. The April number contains an announcement of the Fourth Triennial Congress of the English, Continental, and Universal Federation, to be held in London, June 28th to July 2d. We will be greatly indebted to M. Humbert, if he will kindly furnish us with a brief account of this meeting, for the information of American women.

Prof. von Holtzendorff, of Munich, and Ministerial Counsellor Dr. von Jagemann, of Carlsruhe, who have in course of preparation a work on the Management of Prisons and Correctional Institutions, have honored me by a request that I would write a chapter for it, on correctional institutions under the charge of the police and on workhouses. I find that I am not sufficiently informed with regard to the laws and systems of other countries, particularly of the United States. On application to Counsellor Ékert, of Freiberg, for aid in this emergency, he gave me the friendly advice to write to you, whom he regards as an authority. At his suggestion, I take the liberty of troubling you with a request to give me some information respecting the laws and regulations in force in the United States concerning mendicancy, vagrancy, and prostitution. Any assistance which you can give me, will place me under exceptional obligations.
SICHART, *Strafanstaltsdirektor.*
Ludwigsburg, Wurtemberg, April 16th.

If possible, with our other engagements, we will endeavor next month to say something which may be of service to Director Sichart. The difficulty of replying to requests for information covering the whole United States is greater than Europeans can well conceive. Each State and territory has its own laws; and a general question like this (of which we receive many) is as if we should write to some friend abroad and ask what laws are in force in Europe. It is to secure coöperation in the study of similar questions, that this journal has been established.

When I received the first number of the RECORD, I was very busy, and soon after was ill—not seriously, but unfit for work; and some time passed without my ordering it. But a copy of the May number woke me up, and I have sent to Messrs. Putnams' London house to ask them to send me two copies (one to lend). I was much struck by your article on Pauper Relief in Pennsylvania. What grand work Brinkerhoff seems to be doing in Ohio. I think the treatment of a man committed for the third time to a State prison is a grand conception. Your State and others will be driven to follow it erelong. I am living on, longer than I expected. I am sometimes ill, and I cannot walk up stairs; but I can sit in my study (where we once had a pipe together), and I 've plenty to do, and I get out sometimes in summer in a chair round the garden or take a short drive in a carriage, and I 'm very happy. T. B. LL. BAKER.
Hardwicke Court, Gloucester, England, May 26th.

If any apology is due to Mr. Baker for printing his personal allusion to himself, which was meant only for our private eye, it is that he has friends in America, of whom he knows nothing, not even their names, who will be glad to hear of his welfare and happiness. We are reminded of a conversation which we once had with the venerable Dr. Edward Jarvis, of Boston, when his health had failed, in which he said to us: "My son," (this was the name by which he always called the editor of the RECORD) "I leave the world with this comfortable conviction, that I leave it in better hands than I found it; for the young men of to-day are far better prepared to grapple with the problems which confront them, than were the young men of my time." A life spent in doing good is the surest way to lay up peace of mind for one's declining years.

I am obliged by the copy of the INTERNATIONAL RECORD which you have sent me. We have only one prison left in England which has no means of aiding ex-prisoners connected with it. That prison is Kirkdale, at Liverpool, and a Prisoners' Aid Society is in course of formation there, with the governor of the prison for honorary secretary, and Lord Derby as president. So I hope that job will soon be complete.

Do you not find harm arising in America from the independence of the several States? For instance, criminally-disposed persons moving from State to State, rendering a record of previous convictions extremely difficult, etc.? Do not such persons also, at times, dodge the different systems of law and practice in the different States, moving to those States which happen to suit their book best, etc.? Such practices as appear still to exist in Delaware (public flogging of women, etc.) seem to us most extraordinary. The suggestion of such a thing would cause a frenzy here. But I suppose the other States of the Union have no remedy, if Delaware chooses to go on so.

In view of the current of thought in favor of a federal constitution which is setting in here, I should be glad to have some information on these points, if you can spare me a line. T. LL. MURRAY BROWNE.
Reformatory and Refuge Union, 32 Charing Cross, S. W., London, England, May 23d.

In reply to Mr. Browne's questions, there can be no doubt in the mind of any intelligent man that the independent jurisdiction, in local matters, of the several States of the Union, leads to various inconveniences, not merely in respect to crime and its repression, but in many other departments of legislation. This subject was ably, though by no

means exhaustively treated, in a paper entitled "Conflict of State Laws —the Evil and the Remedy," read at the Saratoga meeting of the American Social Science Association in 1884, which was printed in No. XIX. of the journal of that association. Mr. Smith said: "There is hardly any department of jurisprudence in which cases are not continually arising to illustrate the conflict between the laws of the several States. In the laws relating to contracts of every kind, including even negotiable paper, in the laws pertaining to corporations, to wills, to marriage and divorce, to the administration of estates, to taxation, to civil and criminal procedure, the systems of the several States present a variance which is as constant as it is unwise and wholly unnecessary. How substantial and pervading this variance is in its character is shown by the significant fact that no discreet lawyer would assume to pronounce an opinion upon a case, however simple, arising under the laws of a neighboring State, until he had made a special examination of the statutes and of the judicial decisions in that State bearing on the questions involved." And again: "The incomparably superior importance of State over national legislation is not popularly appreciated."

We, who live in America, know how hard it is to teach to immigrants who make their homes with us the essential principles of the American system of government, to which native citizens are so accustomed that even the anomalies which it presents are so familiar that they scarcely think of them as peculiar. How much more difficult, then, must it be for a student of our national affairs who resides abroad, even though he may have made the tour of the States, or taken up his temporary abode here, to efface from his mind the previous impressions derived from habitual contemplation of a different system, and distinguish what is excellent in our methods from that which is crude, unessential, and objectionable.

We have long cherished a dream of a future period in our history when the States will no longer permit the management of jails to remain in the hands of county officials, when the United States will recognize the moral obligation resting upon it to provide and care for its own convicts, instead of turning them over to the officials of State prisons, and when possibly the States will voluntarily relinquish the right to legislate on the subject of crime, and there will be a single criminal code, administered by Federal judges, with none but Federal prisons, under the government and direction of a single central authority. But such thoughts are heretical, and we hesitate to give them expression, lest we should be indicted for lunacy. A Chicago paper said of us only the other day: "Such philanthropists as Mr. Wines have long dwelt upon our county seminaries of crime, but their prophecies of worse penal conditions to come have had no greater hearing than had the wailings of Cassandra."

It is true that the mobility of our population, the pains taken to make travel easy, the feeling that an American is at home anywhere in America, the freemasonry (so to speak) of citizenship in a republic, and the limitation of criminal jurisdiction within State lines, all tend to make the commission of crime by strangers in the community where the crime is perpetrated common. But by a system of requisitions by the governor of one State upon the governor of any other, arrests are made, and criminals returned for trial to the State whose laws they have violated. As to criminal registration, we have nothing worthy of the name, and can not have. Nothing is easier than an *alias*, and it is often undiscovered, or, if found out, it is after the man who bears it has been convicted, and is in the penitentiary. Public flogging, as it exists in Delaware, is very unusual in other States, though it may exist; we believe that it was formerly permitted in Rhode Island, and we do not know whether it has been abolished there or not. Under the influence of a sentiment that our laws are too lenient, or that they are not enforced with sufficient vigor, many have advocated of late years, but ignorantly, the establishment of the whipping-post for wife-beaters (of whom we have not so many on this side of the Atlantic as in England), and, in a number of States, bills providing for this particular form of punishment in such cases have been introduced, but have failed to pass. Such proposals are like another, which makes its appearance, sporadically, in our legislatures, to punish rape by castration.

We hope that Mr. Browne will accept the invitation which we extend to him, to write for American readers in the RECORD, the columns of which are open to him, if he cares to avail himself of this opportunity to teach us how to organize and manage successfully the great work of caring properly for discharged prisoners, in which he has had so much experience.

The German Reformed Church established at this place, October 1, 1883, an Orphans' Home. There are now thirty-three children in it. Its officers are: President, Rev. J. H. Kline, D.D., Galion, O.; vice-presidents, Rev. J. H. Stepler, Lima, O., and Rev. F. Strassner, Orrville, O.; secretary, Rev. C. Schaaf, Fort Wayne, Ind.; treasurer, Rev. C. F. Kriete, Fort Wayne, Ind.; superintendent, Rev. I. Rettig. The Home is situated on a small farm about two miles from the city. The building is of brick, commodious and comfortable, and the location healthful and attractive.

JOHN H. JACOBS.

Fort Wayne, Indiana, May 19th.

OUR EXCHANGES.

The contents of the April number of the *Bulletin de la Société Générale des Prisons* are as follows: Session of the Society, April 14; Notice of the Works of M. Charles Lucas, by P. Bujon; Trial by Jury in Spain, by M. Silvela; Miss Anna Dawes' article on a United States Prison, translated from "Lend A Hand," by M. Vial; Transportation (second article), by James Nattan; Extracts from the Report of the Administration of Criminal Justice, during the Year 1884; Speech on Attenuating Circumstances, delivered in the French Senate, by M. Grandperret; Rehabilitation, a critical examination of the law of August 14, 1885, by G. Leloir.

We extend a cordial welcome to Dr. Jewell's new magazine, *The Neurological Review*, published monthly at Chicago—notwithstanding the fact that the first number contains an outrageous and unwarrantable assault upon the Commissioners of Public Charities for the State of Illinois, which is in substance identical with the paper on the same subject, read before a New York society by Dr. Spitzka. This one is written by Dr. Kiernan himself, who either misapprehends or wilfully misrepresents the attitude and action of the board in the investigation of the management of the Cook county insane asylum, of which he was for a time the superintendent. Both of these gentlemen assert what is untrue, when they say that the report of the board for 1883–4 contains any eulogy or fulsome laudation of the management under Dr. Spray; or that the Chicago Medical Society and Citizens' Association, or either of them, requested an investigation by the board in 1884; or that the investigation in 1886 was ordered by the governor; or that the board had any disposition to screen the administration of 1883–84, or to shield the political ring which governs Cook county. Dr. Spitzka's paper contains statements not repeated by Dr. Kiernan in his article, which we will also deny with emphasis, in this connection. It is not true that the board "enforced the legal rules of evidence against Dr. Kiernan, but failed to enforce them in his favor"; if it had any sympathy for either side in the controversy over the management, it was for Dr. Kiernan, who was the attacking party, against fearful odds, and apparently in the interest of good government. It is not true that "influential newspapers and leading citizens" of Chicago united in the request for an official investigation preferred by certain organizations of men and women. It is not true that the board "refused at first," or at any time, to allow Dr. Kiernan legal aid; neither is it true that it "refused to render him assistance in procuring witnesses." It transcended its legal powers in the effort to aid him in this regard. Dr. Kiernan is in grievous error in supposing that the "double-headed" management of which the board complains, is the appointment by the county commissioners of a superintendent and steward, independent of each other, though it does condemn this form of organization wherever it exists. It referred primarily to the interference with the internal administration of the affairs of the asylum by the "committee on charities" of the county board, which was precisely the same under Dr. Spray as under Dr. Kiernan. In the presence of such interference, no nominal executive officer could in fact be held responsible beyond the limits of the power actually conferred upon him. The county board, by tolerating such a state of affairs, assumed the entire responsibility for all the abuses which were shown to have existed, and doubtless much might have been proved which was not. But the State board could not go outside of the proof, to give expression to mere suspicions. Nor did it consider that it was trying either Dr. Spray or Dr. Kiernan; the real defendant, if there was any in the case, was the county board, against whom the State board returned in substance a verdict of guilty. What Dr. Kiernan seems to have wanted was a personal triumph over Dr. Spray. His

remark that "if the board had clearly laid the responsibility for evils where it belonged, the guilty could have been indicted for malfeasance in office," seems to us to have no point. Why can they not be indicted, as it is, if there is proof accessible to secure their conviction? He is apparently blind to the fact that the only effective remedy for the misgovernment of the Cook county asylum consists in the amendment of the law which allows the Cook county commissioners to have control of it; and that the State board, by making this as palpably manifest as possible, (without positive evidence of corruption in the management, which was not forthcoming at the investigation), laid a foundation for an appeal to the legislature of Illinois for a revision of the lunacy laws of that State, which the board has been persistently urging without success, for a series of years. By way of illustration of the gross ignorance of Dr. Spitzka on the subject of which he assumes to write in such a dogmatic spirit, he does not seem to be aware that the Illinois State commissioners of public charities submitted a bill for an act providing for the appointment of a State commissioner in lunacy, which was thrown out by the legislature. The blame for the failure of the board to accomplish the reforms which it has sought to bring about, rests in fact upon the medical profession of the State, which has rendered no substantial aid to it in its struggle.

A FRIEND OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

Bishop Gillespie, of the Episcopal Church in Michigan, is a devoted friend of the poor, the suffering, and the degraded. In his Address to the Twelfth Convention of the Diocese, he remarks:

> In the discharge of my duties as a member of the State Board of Corrections and Charities, I have spent a Sunday at the institution for educating the deaf and dumb, and two Sundays at the industrial school for girls; I have made eleven other visits to State institutions; have visited jails thirty times, and poorhouses sixteen times; have attended the conference and convention of the board at Big Rapids, the meeting of the superintendents of the poor at Ionia, and the session of the National Prison Association at Detroit, and numerous meetings of the board. Beyond the State, I have visited institutions at Toledo, and, at the courteous invitation of the rector of Trinity Church, Toledo, preached on penal matters.
>
> The advance that the State should make in her institutions is: The establishment of an asylum for imbeciles and idiots, with such instruction as their condition will allow. When the deaf and dumb and the blind become for a time the wards of the State, and the indigent insane are received under her care, it is not just that a class more helpless than either, more painful in their homes, and more dangerous to society, should be left without her protection. The coming legislature will be approached on the subject, and I trust that your influence will be exerted (in favor of this measure). States younger and less populous than our own have been before us in making this needed provision.

The interest thus shown in public affairs, and particularly in the relief of the misfortunes of the helpless and forlorn, is worthy of a Christian minister, and if it were more often followed by those high in position in the church, the church would commend itself more fully to the confidence and affection of those without her pale.

Our thanks are due to Mr. Léon Caubert, of Paris, for a copy of his translation of Lujo Brentano's book on The Labor Question. This is the most analytical and comprehensive treatise on that subject that we have seen, and our readers may expect to find the substance of it in the RECORD for August.

The French Chamber of Deputies has voted 100,000 francs to the fund for the establishment of the Pasteur Institute.

Mr. John P. Allgeld, of Chicago, an attorney in active practice, sustaining no direct relation to prisons, has just published at his own expense for gratuitous distribution, a book by himself, entitled, "Our Penal Machinery." It is handsomely printed and bound, and applications for copies may be addressed to him at his office, Room 41, Montauk Block. A notice of this work will appear in our next issue.

OBITUARY.

Died, in St. Louis, Missouri, on the morning of Saturday, May 1st, the Right Reverend Charles Franklin Robertson, D.D.

In the decease of Bishop Robertson, the National Conference of Charities has lost an active, intelligent, wise member; and the cause which the Conference represents, one from whose exertions much has been realized, and from whom we had reason to expect much in the future.

The Bishop's active interest in the Conference dates from the meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, in 1882. Spending the warm season there with his family, he wrote to me, inquiring as to the nature of the Conference, and asking whether it would be well for him to be accredited as a member from Missouri. He accordingly took his seat, commissioned by the governor.

He was in attendance at the meetings in Louisville and St. Louis, and absent last year, only because his Convention was in session. It will be recalled how deeply interested he was in arranging for the session in St. Louis in 1884, and how much that meeting was indebted to his services.

In his own State, his efforts were unceasing, to secure a board of charities, and to provide for the institutions for crime and poverty the regulation system which modern study and experience have found to be advisable.

In the closing session of the meeting at St. Louis, the following resolution, offered by Mr. Neff, of Ohio, was adopted by a rising vote: *Resolved*, That we wish our vice-president, Bishop Robertson, abundant success in his effort to realize the wise and benevolent purposes indicated in the closing paragraphs of his interesting sketch of the public and private charities of this city and State."

It was characteristic of our late associate, to embrace in his sympathies all the needs of humanity. His spirit was broad and generous. He brought to every good work admirable tact and judgment. He was a whole man, a truly good man. In the language of the representatives of his diocese: "Throughout the bishop's life his purity of character, adorned as it was by the marked dignity and courtesy of his demeanor, won for him the friendship and esteem of the community."

He has fallen ten years before the threescore were reached, in the prime of his maturity, the labors and anxieties of his office wearing out a frame that seemed to promise length of days.

This brief tribute is offered by one who will sadly miss him in our conferences, who feels the worth of his character, who valued his friendship. GEO. D. GILLESPIE.

Grand Rapids, Michigan.

STEPHEN R. CUTTER.

We chronicle, with feelings of peculiar regret, the death of this admirable man. Born in New Jersey, in 1809, he worked on his father's farm until he was sixteen years of age, when he apprenticed himself to a ship-carpenter. On coming of age, he went into business for himself, and continued in it for twenty-six years, when, in 1856, at the age of forty-seven he retired from it, with a fortune, and determined to devote the remainder of his life to Christian philanthropy. During the thirty years that followed, he was connected with the management of various charitable institutions, was president of the New York Woman's Medical College, president of several banks, and general agent of the New York Prison Association. His motto was: "Never give up a soul," and over his desk hung a placard bearing the cabalistic figures 490, signifying the number of trials which should be accorded to a transgressor — "seventy times seven." Though he was deceived hundreds of times by men whom he desired to assist, he never lost his faith in humanity and in the divine promises, but was always ready to welcome with open heart all who professed repentance for the past and a desire to begin life anew.

CONVENTIONS THIS MONTH.

We regret our inability to attend the meeting of the Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane, at Lexington, Kentucky, in May, and will have to depend on other sources for an account of what was said and done there.

The Ninth Biennial Convention of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind will be held at the New York Institution for the Blind, in New York City, on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, July 6–8th. Papers will be read on the Architecture of Institutions for the Blind, by Mr. McElroy, of Michigan ; on the Principles on which the Organization of Industrial Establishments for the Blind should be Based, by Mr. Anagnos, of Massachusetts ; on the Necessity for an American College for the Blind, by Mr. Wait, of New York ; on the General Character of the Embossed Literature for the Blind Demanded by the Present and Future Condition of the Schools for the Blind, by Mr. Huntoon, of Kentucky ; on the Powers, Duties, and Responsibilities of Superintendents, by Mr. Battles, of Pennsylvania ; on Methods of Teaching, by Mrs. Little, of Wisconsin ; and on the Idiosyncrasies of the Blind, by Mr. Dow, of Minnesota. The trustees of the American Printing-House for the Blind will meet on the afternoon of Wednesday. We have been asked whether, if the convention should determine to publish in embossed print a magazine for the blind, we would gave a résumé of its contents each month ? Unquestionably we should regard it as our duty to do all in our power to help forward the interests of the blind and of the superintendents of institutions for their benefit, so far as consistent with the general interests of the public.

The Eleventh Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf and Dumb will be a memorable one on many accounts. It is to be held at Berkeley, California ; and the arrangements made for crossing the continent with comfort, at the cheapest rate ever granted to an excursion party, which have been made by Dr. Gillett, of the Illinois Institution, do him great credit. The convention will meet July 15th. Those who go, will start from Chicago or St. Louis on Saturday, July 3d, and will meet at Jacksonville, where they will spend Sunday, the 4th, as the guests of the State of Illinois. Sunday night they will leave for the Pacific coast, via Kansas City, where they will remain for a few hours, to see the place ; Denver, and Colorado Springs (where they will be entertained at the Colorado Institution). On Wednesday, they will have a picnic at Manitou, and on Thursday another at Cheyenne Cañon. They will spend Sunday and Monday at Salt Lake City, and will arrive at San Francisco by noon of Wednesday, the 14th. On the return trip, those who come by the Union Pacific will be entertained at the Nebraska Institution. The majority will probably take the Northern Pacific road, with which arrangements have been made to stop at the principal points of interest along the route. The scenes and incidents of this journey will afford pleasing recollections for a life time, and the charge from the Missouri river to San Francisco and return is only fifty dollars. Normal classes for teachers of the deaf will be held in connection with the convention, conducted by Mr. Ely, of Maryland, with as many assistants as may be required.

The National Conference of Charities and Correction will hold its thirteenth annual session at St. Paul, Minnesota, from the 15th to the 21st of July. A large attendance is expected, including ex-President Hayes, and a most interesting programme has been prepared by Mr. Neff, for this occasion.

In our September number, we hope to give our readers interesting reports of all these conventions.

The best notice of the Conference of Charities ever penned appeared in a late number of *The Christian Register*. It was written by Mr. J. G. Brooks and is worthy of a careful reading by every person interested in the elevation of the standard of charitable and correctional work.

THIRTEENTH NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTION.

RAILROAD RATES.

The Local Executive Committee announces that the following railroad companies will return, "on certificate," members of the conference who have paid full first-class fare one way, whether "limited" or "unlimited" :

Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul ;
Chicago, St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Omaha ;
Minneapolis and St. Louis,
Minnesota and Northwestern,
Northern Pacific (as far as Mandan),
St. Paul and Duluth,
St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Manitoba.

This rate covers Minnesota, Wisconsin, Iowa, and Dakota. Members paying full fare (limited) from Kansas City, Omaha, St. Louis, and Chicago will be returned on certificate for one fifth of unlimited fare. Limited fare from Chicago to St. Paul is now $10, the return ticket will cost $2.80, making $12.80 for the round trip. The limited rate may be still lower in July. Certificates must be signed by the agent when ticket is purchased.

Members can come from Chicago, via the Rock Island, Illinois Central, Northwestern, or Milwaukee road, as preferred.

The rate for the State of Michigan is still undetermined.

From all points south of Mason and Dixon's line, regular tourists' summer excursion rates will be charged. North of that line, delegates coming from points east or south of Chicago, can (on presentation *at starting-point*, of certificate from H. H. Hart) procure from local ticket-agents a railroad certificate entitling them to return from St. Paul to Chicago for $2.80, and beyond Chicago for one-third fare.

☞ The certificate of the secretary of the local committee must be obtained IN ADVANCE.

Hotel rates were announced in the first number of the INTERNATIONAL RECORD.

SUMMER EXCURSION RATES TO ST. PAUL.

These, so far as we have been able to ascertain, are as follows :

To St. Paul and Return.

From Atlanta, Ga., $42 ; Buffalo, N. Y., $41.80 ; Cairo, Ill., $28.50 ; Charleston, S. C., $55.05 ; Chattanooga, Tenn., $40.80 ; Cincinnati, O., $32.35 ; Cleveland, O., $37.80 ; Jackson, Miss., $42 ; Jacksonville, Fla., $59.10 ; Louisville, Ky., $35.40 ; Memphis, Tenn., $35.85 ; Mobile, Ala., $43 ; Montgomery, Ala., $42 ; Nashville, Tenn., $34.75 ; New Orleans, La., $45 ; Pittsburg, Pa., $40.20 ; Savannah, Ga., $53.30 ; St. Louis, Mo., $22 ; Vicksburg, Tenn., $43.75.

Additional information will be furnished on request.

H. H. HART,
Secretary Local Executive Com.

St. Paul, Minn., June 17th.

The headquarters of the Executive Committee will be at the Hotel Ryan. Rooms should be written for in advance.

The National Prison Association is about to publish the reports of the past two years, in a single volume. It will contain most of the papers read at the last two prison congresses, at Chicago and at Detroit, and will constitute a valuable addition to the literature of penology. Subscriptions in advance are solicited, and orders for copies should be sent to the secretary, Mr. W. M. F. Round, 65 Bible House, New York. Boards of managers of prisons and reformatory institutions can aid the cause by taking a number of copies.

"THERE IS MONEY IN IT."

No doubt there are many who think that interest in the care of the criminal and the unfortunate is an idle sentiment, more creditable to the heart than to the head of him who feels it, or at least that this is a matter with which men in ordinary life have no concern.

The growth of a spirit of indifference to the whole subject is promoted by our system of local self-government and divided authority. If the budgets for the support of institutions devoted to the care of these classes could be consolidated, and the actual amount of the drain upon the people of the country which they involve were known, popular interest in them would receive a sudden impulse.

It is pitiable to think that human nature is so gross, that financial considerations have more weight than any other. But inasmuch as dollars and cents are a universal language, intelligible to everybody, we will try to give our readers some idea of the magnitude of the burden which the nation has to carry, by reducing it to a money standard.

Four hundred and fifty thousand insane, idiotic, deaf, blind, pauper, or criminal inhabitants of the United States cost, for their annual maintenance, probably not less, on the average, than $175 each, directly or indirectly, or let us say $75,000,000 in the aggregate.

Seventy-five million dollars is a per capita tax of one dollar and a half on every man, woman, and child in America, which we pay almost without our knowledge.

At three per cent., it is the interest on $2,500,000,000. And what is $2,500,000,000?

When the census of 1880 was taken, the national debt of the United States was $2,120,415,370. The investment in the debt did not equal the permanent investment in misfortune and crime represented in the returns of the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes.

The total permanent investments by the railroad corporations, including construction, equipment, lands, stocks, bonds, telegraph lines, etc., were $5,182,445,806. Our investment in crime and misfortune was about one half of that in railroads.

The amount invested in railroads is about equivalent to the valuation of the yearly products of manufactures, which was reported at $5,369,579,191. Were one half of all the moneys received by manufacturers, in any single year, to be set apart as a special fund for the care of the criminal and unfortunate, and invested at three per cent., the whole of the interest received would be absorbed.

The value of farm products is not quite half that of manufactured articles; it is $2,447,538,658. The whole of the farm products of the United States for one year would not be more than sufficient for the creation of the fund suggested.

The assessed valuation of the State of New York in 1880 was $2,651,940,000, or no greater than the amount of capital required for the care of our unfortunates and criminals. The assessed value of the six New England States was $2,652,000,000. All of New England, with her cities, her mills, and her banks, would not be more than enough to appropriate to this special purpose, if the capitalization of this expenditure were a necessity.

And yet the men who see these relations are dreamers, while those who shut their eyes to them are not.

The world esteems and applauds him who shows it how to add to its gains by increased receipts from agriculture or the mechanic arts, or by diminished charges for doing the business. But it has no word of commendation and no hand of help for the man who points out that a further element must be taken into the calculation, before the balance is struck between gains and losses, that the stoppage of the leak occasioned by the growth of classes of the population who are to a large extent incapable of self-support might prove to be a fresh source of income. Such reasoning is too remote and circuitous; it is "visionary," and with that word it is dismissed.

But why should students pore over tables of figures on every other subject under heaven and neglect this, which lies so much nearer to the life of humanity? Is it nothing, to seek to improve the efficiency and economy of a necessary but painful service? to labor for the mitigation of suffering? to assuage where we can not cure? and to hunt for means of preventing the spread of the contagion of grief?

But a truce to sentiment. What we desire, is to convince hard-headed business men that their financial interests demand that some one shall pay attention to the question of the prevalence of social evils, their prevention and their cure.

For this special work the very highest order of intellectual talent and moral integrity are essential and should be secured. The wounds in the body politic must be probed, or the patient will die. It is not every ignoramus or charlatan who can be entrusted to perform this service. Wherever you see a good and competent man willing to engage in it, keep him at it, and encourage him by an occasional word of appreciation, if you have it to spare.

Above all, sustain whatever promises to improve the organization of charitable and correctional work, which is at present in a more or less fragmentary state; and be assured that you will find, in so doing, a pecuniary reward.

MR. JAMES' BILL.

We give space to the text in full of an important bill introduced in Congress by Mr. Darwin R. James, of New York, with the approval, as we understand, of the Department of Justice, and which we hope may pass.

As will be observed, it does not make an appropriation for the erection of a United States prison, but simply provides for the appointment of a commission to inquire into the feasibility of such a step by the national government, and to submit a report in which the whole subject shall be thoroughly discussed. The report to be made shall cover the question of the location of the prison and reformatory which are contemplated in the bill, and be accompanied by architectural plans and estimates, with drafts of whatever new legislation may be requisite, to enable the government to take charge, from this time forward, of its own convicts, instead of farming them out to the several States.

Mr. James introduced the following bill: A bill to provide a prison and reformatory for persons convicted of violations of the laws of the United States.

Whereas the erection and construction of a government penitentiary and a suitable reformatory institution is now imperatively demanded, not only by considerations of humanity but also for the advancement of the public interests, economy in the expenditures for United States prisoners, the welfare of such prisoners, and the protection and security of the public peace and safety, the prisoners of the United States being scattered throughout the country in the several penitentiaries of the different States, subject to such conditions and contracts as may be made with those penitentiaries: Therefore

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress Assembled, That the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, shall appoint five persons, citizens of the United States, one of whom shall be an officer in the Department of Justice, as a commission whose duty it shall be to determine upon the manner in which to provide accommodations for the care and discipline of persons convicted of felonies under the laws of the United States, and to procure plans and specifications for the construction of a government prison, with all necessary offices, workshops, and other appurtenances, and a reformatory, the total cost of the two not to exceed two million dollars, the penitentiary to be of sufficient capacity in all its parts and appointments to accommodate and employ one thousand convicts, and a reformatory for juvenile convicts and first offenders, with a capacity not to exceed six hundred prisoners; the said specifications to contain an exact estimate, as near as may be, of the cost of all portions of said prisons in detail, namely, of the land, the fixtures, the superstructure, the furnishing of all their parts, and all necessary appurtenances, including heating and lighting apparatus, water-works, and sewerage, the cost of the inclosure walls, the amount and cost of each and every kind of material to be used in the construction of the same, the cost of labor, and the necessary time required for the completion of said institutions. To enable said commission to perform the above-named duty it is authorized to

employ an architect and submit plans for the building of the above institutions.

SEC. 2. That said commission shall consider such sites as may be offered for the building of these institutions, with a view to making them as easy of access as possible to the different portions of the United States, and shall in their report recommend at what points, in their opinion, the penitentiary and reformatory should be erected.

SEC. 3. That said commission shall also consider the whole subject of the care and discipline of prisoners convicted under United States laws, whether for felonies or minor offenses, and shall also investigate the various methods for the government of prisons and reformatories, to the end that the best and most improved plans may be adopted in the government institutions; and they shall report their conclusions to the President for transmission to the next session of Congress for its consideration and action.

SEC. 4. That said commission shall prepare and transmit for the consideration of Congress such drafts of laws as they shall deem essential to carry into effect their recommendations.

SEC. 5. That to carry out the provisions of this act the sum of dollars is hereby appropriated.

SEC. 6. That members of the said commission shall receive for their services, out of the said appropriation, the sum of ten dollars for each day actually employed in the discharge of their duties, and their expenses, except the member of the commission from the Department of Justice, who shall receive only his expenses; these sums to be allowed and audited by the Attorney-General of the United States.

SEC. 7. That this act shall take effect on and after the date of its passage.

PRISON LABOR IN NEW YORK.

Chapter 432 of the late Session Laws of the State of New York provides for the appointment of a commission of three, to be designated "The Prison Labor Commission," who will hold office until June 1, 1887. The following are the essential sections of the act:

§ 2. The said commission is hereby authorized and directed to investigate and report to the next legislature, either by bill or otherwise, on, or before the tenth day of February, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven, upon each of the following subjects, to-wit:

First. The various systems of employing convicts, and especially the reformatory feature, which involves the convicts' best interest, and the self-sustaining principle of maintaining convicts without cost to the State.

Second. The introduction of a system of employing convicts in the prisons, penitentiaries and reformatories other than the contract system, as it has heretofore obtained in this State, and upon what articles of manufacture prison labor can best be employed with a view of diminishing to the minimum the competition which now exists between prison labor and free labor.

Third. What experiments should be made in the employment of convicts upon any new industry, and in which of the prisons, penitentiaries, or reformatories the same should be tested and under whose direction.

Fourth. The best method by which can be established a graded system in the commitment, custody, and employment of all convicts in this State, with a view of classifying and separating the depraved and vicious from those possessing a type of character susceptible of higher moral improvement.

Fifth. What abuses, if any, obtain in the management and discipline of the convicts in the several prisons, penitentiaries and reformatories of this State, and what new method, change, modification, or improvement should be adopted in this behalf.

§ 4. Until the report of the commissioners, hereinbefore provided for, shall have been made to the legislature, and until the first day of June, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven, the system of labor in the State prisons, penitentiaries and reformatories of this State shall be the public-account system (excepting existing contracts now in force); provided that whenever there shall be idle or unemployed convicts or inmates in any of said institutions whom, in the judgment of the superintendent, warden, or manager thereof, it shall not be practicable for want of plant, material, or conveniences, to so employ on public account, then the superintendent, warden, or manager of each of said prisons, penitentiaries and reformatories may respectively employ, with the approval of the governor, such idle convicts or inmates in the institution under his control on what is known as the piece-price system of labor.

An appropriation of $15,000 is made for the expense of this investigation. Each of the commissioners will be paid $3,000 for his services.

Liberality consists not so much in giving a great deal as in giving seasonably.—BRUYÈRE.

The man who borrows trouble has to pay an excessive rate of interest for a gratification of doubtful value.

LEGISLATION FOR CHILDREN.

The legislature of Maryland, at its recent session, enacted a law in the interest of children, which marks an advance in public opinion in that State. This act was introduced, at the instance of the Baltimore Society for the Protection of Children, by Senator Rayner, and passed without opposition.

Section 1 provides that any minor, having no parent or guardian, and being destitute of means of support, or suffering through the neglect, bad habits, or vicious conduct of its parents, guardian, or other custodian, may be arrested and brought before any judge of a court of record, or justice of the peace, and be committed by said judge or justice of the peace to any charitable, reformatory, or other institution for the care and custody of minors, incorporated under the laws of the State, subject to the discipline, regulations, and powers of such institutions.

Section 2 provides that, upon the return of any writ of *habeas corpus*, issuing for the protection of any child so committed, the court or judge before whom the *habeas* proceeding is tried, may review the facts upon which the commitment was made, and hear new evidence, and remand, release, or commit such minor.

The difficulty in the case of children in improper custody, in the State of Maryland, heretofore, has been, that there has not only been no law at all, outside of the city of Baltimore, applicable to such cases, but the legislation relating to minors requiring custodial care in institutions was contained in the special acts concerning institutions for minors drafted with express reference to the work of the several institutions named in these acts. Now, any minor may be brought before a magistrate and committed to any institution adapted to his individual necessities, and to the circumstances of his case, including age, sex, physical condition, etc. The second section affords ample safeguard against any hasty or injudicious action on the part of subordinate magistrates.

THE POOL AND THE BROOK.

See that little streamlet flowing down from the hill-side in its healthy activity. It pauses near a stagnant pool; and the pool hails it. "Whither, Master Streamlet?" "To the river, to bear this cup of water God hath given me." And the old pool smiles with self-complacency, and says: "You poor foolish thing. You had better hold on to all your water. We have had a backward spring, and we are going to have a hot summer to pay for it; and when the hot sun comes up you will dry up off the face of the earth. You had better hold on to your water, and not be running off that way." "Well, if I am to die so soon, I will use this blessing while I live." And on goes the streamlet rejoicing in its course.

By-and-by the hot sun did come up. How about the little streamlet? When the sun began pouring down upon the earth, the trees along the line of the streamlet interlaced their boughs over its bosom, and would not let the sun touch it; and the cattle drank of the stream, and the birds sipped its tide and sang its praise, and it gladdened the eye of man all along its flashing course as on it went.

But how about the old pool? It held on to all it had, and would not let a drop get away. By-and-by the hot sun shone upon it, and it began to breed miasma and disease; and the winds caught up the miasma and scattered it, and the people had the chills and fever, and by-and-by the very frogs cast their venom upon it, and the cattle met at its banks and would not drink, and the birds flew away in disgust. And God in mercy smote it with a hotter breath and dried it up off the face of the earth.

But the streamlet ran on and on to the river, and bore its cup of water to the ocean, and the ocean sent up its incense to the sun, and the sun turned it into a cloud, and the winds like white steeds were harnessed to the cloud and drove it back over the mountain side. And when the cloud was right over the little streamlet's mouth, God dipped a cup in the cloud and poured the water right back into the little streamlet's mouth, and said: As thou hast freely given, now freely receive. And so God kept it alive, and it still sings on its way:

> Men may come and men may go,
> But I go on forever.

And there it is, an everlasting demonstration of the truth that if you give all you have, you shall receive all that God has for you.—SAM JONES, at Chicago.

STORIES OF CRIMINALS.

A young girl incarcerated in the Detroit House of Correction was overheard praying aloud in her cell, and these were her exact words: "O God, you do know that I want to be good, but somehow or other I can't."

A party of bank robbers, arrested in Pennsylvania, were advised by their counsel to plead guilty, in the hope of receiving a light sentence. But the court, instead of fulfilling their expectation, gave them the longest sentence that the law would allow—twenty years we think that it was. One of them turned pale and cried out: "My God! in that time the safes will get away with us."

A private house in Chicago was entered by a burglar in the evening, who found the lady of the house in her bedchamber. She had not yet gone to bed, and at the sight of her unexpected and unwelcome visitor, she fainted, whereupon he coolly proceeded to ransack her bureau, and carried off all the jewelry that he could find. A few days later she received the following note from him: "DEAR MADAM—As you lay upon the floor the other evening, you looked so lovely that I was strongly impelled to kiss you, but the instincts of a gentleman prevented me."

A discharged prisoner entered the office of the late Dr. Elisha Harris in New York one day and said: "I am just out of the penitentiary." Dr. Harris replied: "I am very glad to see you. Take a seat. What can I do for you?" The young man continued: "I want to get honest work to do, and to lead an honest life. Can you aid me to find employment?" Dr. Harris told him that he thought that he might be able to do so, and directed him to a lodging-house, where he could remain for a few days, when he would let him know the result of his efforts in his behalf. He happened to be acquainted with a gentleman who had occasion to hire a large number of men in some manufacture, who had no objection to take convicts on trial, and his application to him in the prisoner's name proved successful. The young man was so attractive in his appearance and manners, that the gentleman and his wife both became deeply interested in him, and, wishing to be of more use to him, took him to their own house, where they spared no pains to influence him in the direction of amendment and right living. He apparently softened under their gentle ministrations, professed to have become a Christian, and expressed a desire to unite with the church. Something of a sensation was created in one of the fashionable places of worship in the city of New York one Sunday morning, when his employer walked down the aisle with him and stood by his side, as the rite of Christian baptism was administered to him. Not long afterward, the prisoner's new and faithful friends met Dr. Harris and asked him what he thought of their protégé. He said: "I do not think that he will hold out." "Why not?" "Oh, I cannot tell you. His looks, his gestures, his whole manner seem to me to indicate a fatal lack of moral stamina." "Why, doctor," exclaimed the lady, "do you mean to set limits to the grace of God!" "By no means, madam. The grace of God can do every thing for everybody, but there are some men for whom it seems in fact to do very little, and I incline to think that this young man is one of them." They were rather indignant at his want of confidence and lack of sympathy with their own enthusiasm. But time rolled on and the young man disappeared. He had been absent for some weeks, when he wrote the lady: "I can never thank you as I ought for your very great kindness to me. I am sorry to have requited it so badly, but the truth is that I could not stand an honest life. I did try, but I would rather die with a jimmy in my hand than be the possessor of the finest fortune in America."

Virtues paraded hide vices; like strong odors used to hide bad smells.

INSTITUTION ACCOUNTS.

Dr. Henry M. Hurd, Superintendent of the Eastern Michigan Asylum for the Insane, writes us:

In the June number of the RECORD is given the report of the sub-committee of Secretaries of State Boards of Charities in reference to "uniform statistics." Most of the conclusions reached are good, and I heartily approve of them. I am in possession, however, of the enclosed letter from Mr. E. C. Smith, an expert accountant, making some criticisms upon this report, and offering some suggestions relative to similar accounts, which I take the liberty of sending you. Every suggestion of this sort coming from an expert accountant seems to me worthy of consideration.

Mr. Smith's letter is as follows:

In the INTERNATIONAL RECORD for June is presented the report of Messrs. Wright and Hart upon the subject of a uniform system of accounts for public institutions. A report so admirably considered in most respects should surely receive such consideration and criticism as will tend to perfect it in every respect.

Passing by the titles "income," "inventory," and most of the "remarks" as fully meeting the views of the writer, I will consider the subdivision "maintenance" under the title "disbursements."

Salaries and wages.—The aggregation of the amounts paid for these purposes can serve no really practical end, but seriously interferes with making a correct showing of the actual cost of all departments of service where help is employed, as the kitchen, laundry, shops, etc. Would it not be better to omit this account, and charge the wages paid to the department where the work is actually performed?

Fuel and light.—These items bear no special relation to each other, requiring that they should be associated. The account should be "light"; and gas bills, and oil, or the expenses of operating a dynamo, should be charged to it. But against a "fuel" account are many valid arguments. The disbursements for coal, for freight on the same, and for wood, should be charged against whatever has been accomplished by the combustion of the fuel. Usually fuel is consumed to make steam, which is used for heating and for power. The portion of steam (and consequently of fuel) used for power is for pumping water, and for running the machinery in shops, laundry, cooking, etc. There should be accounts with heating, machinery, laundry, kitchens, and water supply; and to these accounts the fuel, as well as wages of firemen and other employés should be charged; then it will be possible to answer such questions as: "what does it cost to heat this building?" "What is the cost of your laundry? or kitchen? or pumping?"

These are practical questions, and comparative statistics answering them would be interesting and useful—much more so than the bare information that fuel cost a given sum, without any statement of the work done by it.

Should it become necessary to know the cost of fuel, the coal and wood accounts, freight and other charges could readily be taken from the books and footed in a few minutes, to give this item. So also the amount paid for salaries and wages for any given time can be easily ascertained by adding together the totals of pay-rolls for the time required.

Medicines and medical supplies.—The charging of tobacco to this account, as suggested in the remarks, is hard to justify. Tobacco should be charged to "miscellaneous."

Furniture.—The remarks under this item are well considered, except that kitchen-ware should be charged to "kitchens."

Farm, garden, stock, and grounds.—There is no objection to including all these in one account. Some institutions, however, have separate accounts for farm, garden, and grounds, and charge live-stock to "farm." In such cases the several accounts could be aggregated for purposes of comparative statistics.

Net expenses of shops.—This account may be stricken out, when the other accounts suggested have been opened, since there is then no especial use for it.

Most institutions find it necessary to extend the number of accounts, so as to include the cost of telephones, entertainments, library, and such other expenditures necessitated by their peculiar requirements.

The observations of Mr. Smith are to the point, and he is to be congratulated on having passed nearly all institution accountants of whom we have any knowledge, in one particular. He shows that he appreciates the importance of opening accounts with *departments* of an institution, and showing precisely what the several departments actually cost. This is an idea which has not dawned upon the intellectual comprehension of many superintendents of public institutions; or if it has occurred to them, they have probably rejected it at sight.

Some years ago, the Illinois State Board printed a manual of book-keeping for public institution, in which full directions were given for opening such accounts; but the only institution, even in that State (where greater attention is paid to the financial management of institutions than is at

all usual), which has adopted and carried out the wishes of the board in full, is the Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb, at Jacksonville, than which it would be difficult to find a better managed establishment anywhere, either in Europe or America.

But while we give Mr. Smith the praise which he merits, for his advanced ideas and evident candor in being willing to make a complete showing of every detail of the financial management, in a thoroughly business-like manner, we have this to say on the other side: he has not, apparently, brought his thinking upon this question to a logically consistent conclusion.

The tax-payers of any State or municipality, represented in a legislative body, have a right to ask, concerning the financial conduct of any institution supported in whole or in part by contributions from the public treasury, these three questions:

1. Have you expended all of the moneys voted you? and to what funds have they been charged? This question can only be answered by the treasurer of the institution.

2. For what have you expended them? This is a question for the purchasing agent of the institution, whoever he may be—superintendent, steward, or clerk, according to circumstances.

3. What has been done with the proceeds of such expenditure, either in supplies or labor? This is a question, at least so far as relates to supplies, for the institution storekeeper.

Now the majority of existing institutions reply to the first two of these inquiries and not to the third. There are many of them who could not reply to the third, if they desired to do so, because their records of the issue and consumption of supplies are either very imperfect, being kept on the crudest possible plan, or they keep no record whatever.

Far be it from us, to insinuate that there is a dishonest person employed in any capacity in any institution in the United States, but if there should ever happen to be, it is tolerably clear that he might, instead of stealing money, steal supplies, which would be easier, much more difficult of detection, and equally profitable, if not more so. If institutions are to be run on the faith principle, we do not see why any account of funds should be required of their officers; but if an account of funds is proper, we do not see why an account of property is not equally important. Such returns are made in the army, and in all well-regulated private concerns, such, for instance, as the Pullman Palace Car Company and others which we might name.

But the classification of accounts common among our institutions is based on the single principle of stating for what articles the money entrusted to them has been paid out. Messrs. Hart and Wright have accepted usage in this particular, and endeavored to conform to it, in framing their scheme for uniform statistics. Mr. Smith would have them abandon it for a classification on the contrary principle of stating by what departments of an institution these funds have been expended.

The first reply to this suggestion is, that institutions generally are not prepared to make any statement on that basis. The second is, that Mr. Smith himself does not carry out his own principle, except in part: he would have items for "laundry" and "kitchen," on his principle, but also for "furniture" and "medicines," on the principle which he condemns.

The truth is, that no institution accounts are complete which do not admit of a statement on either of these two principles, which is easily done, if the books are kept by double entry, and provision is made for a classification by departments on the set of books kept by the storekeeper. For a full explanation of the method of accomplishing this result, reference may be made to the books of the Illinois Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and the abstracts of those reports in the biennial reports of that institution will show how the plan there followed works out in practice.

Of course any institution may subdivide its expenditure account to any extent, and the committee does not aim to lay any restriction upon the extent of such subdivision by particular establishments: it merely seeks to have them so subdivided that they can be consolidated on a uniform plan, for the purpose of comparison and consolidation.

INSTITUTION DIETARIES.

Mr. Edward Atkinson writes us as follows:

I have just received from Mr. L. McHugh, Chief of the Ohio Bureau of Labor Statistics, a table showing the cost of feeding the inmates of the State institutions of Ohio, as compared to the cost of food in a large number of workingmen's families—the daily price of the food in institutions being a fraction over 17 cents, the food being bought in large quantities at wholesale rates, while in 353 workmen's families, the average cost at retail is 14 cents.

I think that even the Illinois institutions, economically managed as they are, show a higher cost for the inmates of institutions than the average expenditures in workingmen's families.

This is suggestive.

If the inmates of reformatories and other State institutions are better housed, better clothed, and better fed than the average of working people, must not the ultimate effect be to crowd these institutions, and to pauperize large numbers of people?

I venture to suggest a close investigation of this subject, and a thorough treatment of it in your periodical.

I have requested Mr. McHugh to send you a copy of the table which he has sent to me.

We have not heard from Mr. McHugh, but would be glad to do so. The subject which Mr. Atkinson opens to examination is one of importance, and we invite expression of opinion concerning it from others.

Speaking for the State of Illinois alone, to which he refers in complimentary terms, the last biennial report of the Board of Public Charities shows that on the last day of the fiscal year 1884 there were 4,067 inmates of the institutions under the care of that board. Of these, 2,400 were patients in hospitals for the insane, and 928 were inmates of educational institutions for the deaf, the blind, and the feeble-minded. The remainder were eye and ear patients, the orphan children of soldiers, and the boys committed to the State reform school (which receives none who are not sentenced to it for crime).

It does not seem reasonable to suppose that any of these "crowded into" any of the institutions named. No reduction in the diet-list of either of them would affect the number of inmates in either of them. The insane are committed by the county courts, after a "trial" by jury. The defective condition of the deaf and dumb, the blind, and the idiotic, is palpable and unmistakable.

Nor does it follow, even if it should be proved that the inmates of State institutions "are better housed, better clothed, and better fed than the average of working people," that they ought not to be. Dr. Grissom, of North Carolina, in his latest published report remarks:

Many pages of the leading authorities in this country and in Europe might be quoted to show that insanity is an affection profoundly connected with the innutrition of the nervous system, brought about by a great variety of injurious and degenerative influences, and that the first step must be to give the broken-down system facilities for repair and restoration. Pure blood, with a normal supply in quality and quantity of blood cells, is an absolute prerequisite. This can only be produced from good food, air, and water. The food must not only be negatively good, but must be more digestible and more abundant than that which the man in robust health requires. We have not simply to feed the furnace, but almost to rebuild the fires of life.

The experience of the institutions which have reduced the dietary scale for the sake of experiment, at the wish of political economists, has been uniformly the same. The effects involved discontent and irritation; the languid drooped, the excitable were less easily controlled, the demented lost by degrees what show of life they still exhibited; all insane propensities were augmented; the curable, if not arrested in the movement of recovery, made slower progress, and the incurable sank more rapidly.

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

Jurisdiction in lunacy is vested in certain courts in each State by statute. Legislation as to this point is far from uniform. Usually, the court selected by the legislature—or one of the courts, where jurisdiction is concurrent and not exclusive—is the probate court, for which there is good reason, since the disposition of the estate of a lunatic is one of the questions involved in the inquest, and the probate court has charge of estates.

Motives of convenience undoubtedly have had much influence in determining the choice of the judicial tribunals upon which to confer such jurisdiction. The importance of early treatment of the insane is tolerably well understood, and the chances of early treatment are better, where the court is accessible and constantly in session or can be convened at any moment. This is why jurisdiction, in some States, is in the judge of the court, and in others justices of the peace are allowed to exercise it. But it is, we think, more than doubtful whether this is not too informal a method of procedure. In so grave a matter, more formality and especially a complete record are eminently desirable and proper.

Commitment to a hospital or asylum for the insane, however we may gloss it over, is deprivation of liberty. It is to be shut up under lock and key. It is to be subjected to liability to undergo painful discipline, at the will of another—the discipline of the camisole and the muff, for instance, if the medical officers in authority deem such treatment expedient and judicious. It is to have no assurance of any termination to most irksome confinement ; for there is no patient who may not have to remain in custody for the term of his natural life, if no improvement takes place in his condition. It is to be cut off in large measure from not merely the companionship of friends and relatives, but from their present and active sympathy, and, in some cases, apparently from their very remembrance. That such deprivation is unavoidable, that it is proper, that it is beneficial, does not render it less painful, nor change its essential nature.

In the question of jurisdiction certain subsidiary questions are implied, which are reducible to four heads, namely : (1) The subjects of inquest ; (2) the form and scope of inquest ; (3) the extent of power vested in the court over the person and estate of a lunatic ; (4) the duration and termination of the authority conferred upon it. To these may be added a fifth, which some persons might regard as trivial, but which is more vital than at first sight appears—the form of the record in lunacy. These subsidiary questions have almost endless ramifications. It requires patient attention and close thought to make an exhaustive analysis of the minor points involved in them, and to arrive at a logically consistent conclusion, which shall be in harmony at once with the principles of law, the teachings of medical science, and the dictates of humanity. Yet the task is not a hopeless one, and its accomplishment has been facilitated by the publication, by the late George L. Harrison, of his elaborate compendium of the laws in force in the United States, relative to the insane, in 1883. We have not entered upon this undertaking without a careful preliminary study of existing legislation, by the comparative method, which is the most fruitful, since it teaches the candid inquirer what to condemn and avoid as well as what to approve and adopt.

We hold that in order to a legal commitment to a hospital or asylum for the insane two pre-requisites are essential, a medical certificate of insanity and a formal order of a court of record. To illustrate the looseness of thought upon this subject displayed by the framers of statutes, we mention the fact that in some States certain classes of patients, if not all, are admitted by law into hospitals for the insane without a judicial order ; and in others still, even without a medical certificate.

There is but one northern State which authorizes the commitment of any insane person without a medical certificate—the State of Maine, where parents and guardians of insane minors, if of sufficient ability to pay for their support in an institution, may send them, within thirty days after an attack of insanity, without any legal examination. But in Maryland, nothing contained in the law relating to insane paupers "shall prevent the friends or relations of such insane persons from confining him." In Arkansas, according to a provision in the digest, which has not been explicitly repealed, an insane person may be placed in the asylum "by the voluntary act of his friends or relations." In South Carolina, the regency must admit idiots, lunatics, or epileptics into the asylum, when their admission is requested under the hands of the husband or wife, or (where there is no husband or wife) of the next of kin ; and nothing contained in the act may be held in any manner to apply to the entrance of pay-patients. In Virginia, Mississippi, and Louisiana, the trustees of institutions for the insane may admit patients on their own judgment and at their own discretion. In Delaware and Florida, so far as we have been able to discover, no medical certificate or legal inquest is required in the case of patients not indigent.

We are not sure that Rhode Island ought not to be included in the above list, since we find in the statute authority conferred upon the superintendents of institutions for the insane in that State to "discharge any patient not committed by law" ; the question occurs to us, how can any such patient be admitted?

Commitment on simple medical certificate, without the order of any court, is quite common. It is tolerated in Alabama, Connecticut, the District of Columbia, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Texas, and Vermont. In some of these States, the right to receive patients in this informal way is restricted to "pay" patients ; in others, it is unrestricted, and extends to pauper patients committed by the persons having them in charge, unless contrary to some other provision of the statutes.

We can not regard the certificate of a judicial or other officer to the standing of the maker of the certificate and genuineness of his signature, or even the approval by a judge or justice of a court of record (which may be simply *pro formâ*, without any investigation or hearing of evidence or record made), as a judicial proceeding, such as is contemplated by the constitution of the United States and by the State constitutions as an essential condition of the deprivation of personal freedom.

In the District of Columbia, under the United States statutes, the order of admission is signed not by any judicial officer, but by the secretary of the interior, based upon the certificate of a judge of the supreme court of the district or a justice of the peace, that two physicians and two householders of the district have made the required depositions before him.

We assume, of course, that notwithstanding the defects in the law in the States which we have cited, little or no actual wrong, in the form of improper commitments, actually occurs. But this does not justify the looseness of which we complain.

It would seem that legislators have had more clearly in their mind the safeguards necessary to be thrown around the public treasury and the treasuries of institutions for the insane, than the protection of the insane against illegal commitment or detention. This appears from the distinction so often made between the law of commitment of insane paupers and those able to pay the charges for board and treatment. But it is a palpable fact, that the temptation to send the insane who have property and social position to asylums, from interested motives, is often greater than that which can exist in the case of an insane pauper. We greatly dislike these distinctions between the rich and the poor in our lunacy laws. Why should there be more than one method of commitment, applicable to all citizens alike ?

We add here but one further remark. In all that we have

to say on the general subject of jurisdiction in lunacy, in this connection, we confine ourselves entirely to the condition and rights of the non-criminal insane. The insane who are charged with crime, and are in the custody of courts of criminal jurisdiction, will form the theme of consideration at a later stage of the discussion.

HYSTERICAL WOMEN.

We are pained to learn that Dr. Legrand du Saulle, of Paris is dead. He was the author of many valuable works, the only one of which that we have read is entitled *Les Hystériques*. In it he gives, with a delicacy of expression and a beauty in the turn of his thought which it is impossible to convey in any translation, the aggregate result of his reading and personal observation in the case of women afflicted with hysteria. We have selected a few passages here and there, not medical, or at least not technical, in their character, which appear to us to be likely to interest a general reader, and to throw light upon the peculiarities of certain women, which, without such a key to their interpretation, might remain a mystery to their friends. Of course the description is general; it applies to a type, and is not necessarily true in detail of all who are included in this type, who differ from one another almost endlessly in the particular traits of their several temperaments and dispositions.

It may be said that, physiologically, hysteria consists in the impairment of the will and the correlative exaggeration of the emotions, culminating in the overthrow of the normal equilibrium between the cerebral and the medullary functions. But no definition of hysteria has yet been given, and probably none ever will be.

When one finds one's self in presence of a hysterical woman, and attempts to study, in their multiple aspects and varied manifestations, the patient's complex symptoms, one must never lose sight of the tendency to deceive, to practise imposition, especially upon physicians, which characterizes the great majority of women of this type. Some sceptical spirits have even gone so far as to assert that it is impossible to assure one's self of the reality of any symptom of hysteria, however insignificant. According to them the whole is simulation; and observers who have given credence to the actuality of the symptoms observed by them have been nothing less than the dupes of an audacious mystification.

What a hysterical woman says is worthy of little credit.

Hysterical girls are impressionable, and liable to laugh or cry at nothing. They are endowed with unusual intelligence and with a lively imagination. At school, they often distinguish themselves, especially in music and in art. They possess a natural gift of imitation. They sometimes manifest a tendency to hypochondria, and display an anxiety about their health not common in the young. They are wakeful at night, and suffer from nightmare, nocturnal alarms, and veritable hallucinations.

The most striking characteristic of hysteria is mobility. The only thing constant in women of this class is inconstancy. From day to day, from hour to hour, they pass from a state of animation to one of gloom. They pursue with their malice those whom once they encircled with their tenderness. To this habitual versatility of impressions, it is curious to oppose the pertinacity, the inveterate obstinacity, with which they return to some fixed idea (which is the creature of their imagination), and hold to it by the teeth, so to speak. Is this a proof of strength of will? On the contrary, it is simply the power of inertia; it is more properly instability or perversion of the will. Such women are capable of great exertion, but not of continuous persevering effort.

A hysterical woman feels the need of interesting others in her, of attracting to herself the notice of the public. She is generally an egotist, preoccupied with herself. She is a plotter; she makes all the scandal that she can. She delights to set in motion a train of lawyers and adherents, who often unwittingly lend their assistance to the deplorable manœuvres of a diseased imagination.

At length, the necessity for making an impression becomes so overpowering that she shrinks from no falsehood, however shameless, from no calumny, however abominable. She does not hesitate to bear false witness, to write anonymous letters, to perjure herself. Her friends, and, most of all, her husband, if she has one, suffer from her strange mental disorder. She can not help lying, intriguing, compromising those who come near her. She professes to have been the subject of criminal assaults, and does not hesitate to accuse the most estimable and innocent men. Arrived at this stage of her malady, she is dangerous, particularly if no medical man is at hand to throw light upon her conduct, and to unravel the web of deceit which sometimes entangles the very judges upon the bench, if they are not familiar with the type of depraved intelligence and moral character which these women present. They simulate diseases and wounds; they have been known to go so far as to mutilate themselves.

The charge which they bring with the most intense satisfaction against those whom they desire to injure, whether from jealousy, hatred, or female vanity, is that of an attempt to corrupt them morally. Naturally, the classes of men most liable to become the object of such charges are doctors and priests. We have had to record some lamentable miscarriages of justice, in consequence of the inability of those thus accused to extricate themselves from the tissue of compromising circumstances which these women have had the ingenuity to weave around them.

Some of them, irritated, jealous, beside themselves, take refuge in flight, quit the house in haste, under the influence of emotional exaltation, and go to weep at church, or at the house of some friend, where they arrive a little upset, talkative, and trembling. They complain of injuries received at the hand of a husband or mother-in-law, a physician, a minister of religion, or some neighbor. They blurt out secrets, impart outrageous and lying confidences, invent tales, scold out of measure, and rarely fail to call attention to their own virtues and imagined merit. "They have so much heart; nobody understands them; they are utterly wretched." Soothing and encouragement produce no apparent effect. But little by little they become calm, they return home and at dinner, or in the evening, they are cheerful, graceful, and amiable. The storm is over.

I must add that occasionally the intellectual disorder which manifests itself in a nervous woman, particularly any tendency to falsehood on her part, has been seized upon and wickedly plead, by persons under accusation, in order to exculpate themselves from censure and dissipate charges which have been in fact well founded.

On the other hand, there is a form of hysteria that is inoffensive, in which the mental disturbance takes such a turn that, instead of being sent to prison, the woman is canonized as a saint.

Some hysterical women take the veil. Others, though they remain in the world, ardently engage in every good work, search out the needy, labor for the orphans, visit the sick, give alms, watch with the dead, beg money for charitable uses, and do many acts of real service, all the time in total oblivion of the calls of duty at home. They have a benevolence full of ostentation and display; they want to be noticed, to be complimented on their charity and zeal, to build up a reputation for virtue and piety. They go and come; they are everywhere. They have inspirations of the most charming delicacy. In time of private calamity or public disaster, they think of every thing, and affect to blush when the tribute of admiration is paid them by the recipients of their kindness or by the moved spectators. The charitable hysterical woman is capable of deeds which are imitated and quoted, and even may become legendary. Devotion is for them a necessity. They play the rôle of virtue pathologically. Yet the world applauds, and the effect of their example is good. I have myself gained for a hysterical girl, once a patient in an institution for the insane, a public recompense; her goodness in her own neighborhood is really touching.

Nothing better illustrates the exaltation of hysteria than do the letters written under its influence. In these we meet with the most exaggerated phrases, whether they depict their love or their hate.

Among the victims of this disease, homicidal impulses are rare. They content themselves with threatening to kill those whom they seek to intimidate, in order to extort concessions from their fears.

A tendency to suicide is common enough. It springs up in an instant, and is purely impulsive. Ordinarily it amounts to nothing. They rarely consummate their purpose. The attempt is simulated, theatrical, designed to attract attention and to excite sympathy.

A hysterical woman's audacity knows no bound. Incapable of moderating her passionate vivacity, she will risk every thing in order to ensure the success of her combinations. Nothing can stop her.

Association with her is rendered intolerable, for the most part, by the spirit of opposition, of contradiction, of controversy, which animates her.

When we attempt to estimate her moral responsibility, we find it impossible always to apply general rules to particular cases. Not every hysterical woman is insane; but, in the majority, the harmony of the moral sentiments is interrupted, the action of the affections perverted, and the order of sensation disarranged. Insanity, though not always present, is foreshadowed. In a word, there exists a predisposition to insanity. Those women who ought to bear the entire responsibility which naturally attaches to their conduct, may be called hysterical women of the first degree. And even the confirmed victim of hysteria has her moments of responsibility. But, generally speaking, hysteria is a mitigation or extenuation of culpability. The freedom of the will, though not assassinated, is wounded and impaired. The will is undecided, capricious, and fantastical.

The usual termination of the complaint is either a recovery or a fixed state. It rarely happens that the neurosis does not pass off, or at least abate, with the lapse of time, especially after the change of life. But one must observe a hysterical woman for years, after her supposed recovery, before pronouncing her cured. In exceptional cases only, the disease ends in death.

Rev. Francis O'Brien has been appointed a member of the Michigan Board of Corrections and Charities, to succeed Mr. Cornelius Van Loo, of Zeeland, resigned.

According to the census published in London, there are 188,215 deaf-mutes in India.—*Advance*. Is there no mistake in these figures?

LATTEN-ARREST.

In the statistics of Prussian prisons published in our last issue, mention was made of one hundred and five prisoners punished by latten-arrest. The following description of this mode of punishment is taken from Dr. Francis Lieber's preface to the American edition of Beaumont and Tocqueville's report on the penitentiary system in the United States.

When, in 1807, stripes were abolished in the Prussian army, it was believed necessary to substitute the laths (in German, latten) for the punishment of running the gauntlet. They consisted of triangular prismatic laths, nailed on the floor of a low and small prison, in such a way that one of the sharp edges of each lath was turned up, and that these edges formed, with other small pieces of wood corresponding in form on the surface, a number of small squares of sharp edges, on which the prisoner was obliged to lie or sit, no kind of furniture being allowed, nor was the prison high enough for him to stand in an erect position. It was so severe a punishment that the prisoner could endure it but for a few hours at a time. After a proportionate rest he was reconducted to this place of torment. The severest punishment of this kind lasted three days. It was inflicted for heavy offences and in consequence of a sentence by a court-martial only. In 1832 the king issued an order declaring that the moral state of the army was of a kind no longer to require this hard disciplinary measure.

THE TRAINING OF THE EAR.

Some years ago, a congenitally blind child underwent a surgical operation at the Illinois Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary, in Chicago, which resulted in giving him complete power of sight. It was amusing to watch his use of his new sense. He saw every thing that others saw, but knew nothing of the meaning of what he saw. In a shop across the street he saw a cat and a dog, but he could not tell which was the cat and which the dog, until he picked them up and felt them, in succession, in order to interpret sight by touch.

There are, no doubt, deaf children, who are much in the predicament of this boy. They have not wholly lost the sense of hearing, but are so hard of hearing, that they have no use of what sensibility remains to them, and, for want of training, are unable to interpret articulate sounds, when they actually perceive them. Or it may even happen that, inasmuch as they have not been taught to distinguish articulate sounds, they have paid no attention to them, and so have lost to a greater or less extent the ability to perceive them. In such cases, it is inherently probable that, if properly and specially trained in hearing, the result would be an improvement in the sensibility of the ear and in the facility of intellectual apprehension of their significance.

Mr. Gillespie, of Nebraska, has undoubtedly rendered a service to the deaf, in his experiments with children of this class, and in calling attention to the advisability of making an effort to preserve what remains of hearing, as well as what has been attained in the way of power of speech, in the deaf and dumb. This is not saying that the number of those included in this group is large, nor that such training will necessarily or probably have the effect of making their sense of hearing at all acute. But certainly such pupils ought to be able to acquire the art of articulation more readily than others who depend entirely upon mechanical means of vocal drill, without any aid from the ear whatever.

We have been interested in reading, in the report of the London Conference of Head Masters of Schools for the Deaf, what was said by Mr. James Howard, of the Yorkshire institution, on this very subject.

My attention was first drawn to the development of latent hearing power in our pupils, some two or three years ago, when I discovered that one of my boys, who up to that time had shown very little aptitude for his lessons, exhibited some slight hearing. This I tested with the audiphone and other instruments, but chiefly by the voice, when I found that he had enough hearing to distinguish between the broad vowel sounds and to imitate and repeat them after me. He did not, however, recognize sounds as words.

It struck me then that it might be possible to train this hearing, and I was under the impression that when learning to produce sounds by the oral system, a certain sense of varying vibrations was conveyed to the sensorium, and that while we were teaching this boy to speak mechanically, we were actually training his ear to familiarity with sounds as sound, and hence gave the credit to the oral system. Our experiments were confined to this boy, for a time, and consisted simply in repeating into his ear the lessons before him.

After a while, I tested all our children with the audiphone, and I came across a few who appeared to distinguish sounds through that medium; but, upon further experiments, I found that whatever they could hear with the instrument they could hear equally well without it. As this has been confirmed by later tests, I look upon the audiphone as useless for our pupils.

By chance, about two years ago, an American paper was put into my hands, containing an account of the beginning of Mr. Gillespie's work at the Nebraska institution; and, more recently, I read a paper in the *Annals* by that gentleman.

Upon this, I determined to make an effort myself, and, testing the pupils again, by means of a tuning-fork and ordinary speaking-trumpets, of which I obtained a selection, I found ten or a dozen with an amount of hearing sufficient to warrant a trial being given them on the aural system.

Finding that nearly all these had hearing in both ears, I had an ear-trumpet constructed upon the principle of a double stethoscope, which seemed to answer its purpose admirably, aud, being cheap, it was easily procurable. This, however, requires to be used with care, as the resonance is so great, that without care injury might be the only result.

This instrument had to be held by both hands. To devise one which would obviate this difficulty, and leave the child the free use of its hands, has been my aim for some time past. I have now an instrument on the following principle. The bell of the trumpet resting on slender springs is placed on the head, and a tube in connection with it passes over the head, separating, at the back, with smaller tubes to each ear. In the bell is a tongue—an adaptation of a similar tongue found in Professor Marianne's excellent instrument—which minimizes the extreme friction heard in ordinary trumpets, and renders the voice more clear and distinct.

The object is, at the outset of the child's school course, upon finding a trace of hearing, to place the instrument upon its head, and to let the hearing and speech develop simultaneously—the two methods helping each other. I have had a class of ten specially taught for about a year, at such times as were convenient, and at other times having the lesson before them repeated through the trumpet, with the result that the power of hearing in most cases has increased to a considerable degree. To my great regret seven of these pupils have left me; but I have been glad to learn that three of them have obtained a simple speaking-tube, and are depending upon it almost entirely.

Reading the other day in the *Annals* that some children so taught in America expressed surprise when they were told that they could hear in the dark, I gave one of my pupils an ordinary cheap speaking-tube when she went to bed, and the next morning she told me that her sister (also a pupil) had said to her many things through it in the dark, which she understood quite well.

I do not at present feel at liberty to express a definite opinion as to the probable outcome of our attempt to improve the hearing of our pupils, or what proportion is likely to be benefited by it. It may be interesting to know that the observations recorded by Prof. Clarke in his paper, Tests of Hearing, in the April number of the *Annals* (1885), agree in almost every particular with those which I have noted in my own school-room. I am deeply interested in the question, and I intend to follow up, to the best of my ability, the work of the past year. Should the experiment fail, I shall have the satisfaction of feeling that I have done my duty in making the attempt, and shall in no way be the loser by the experience.

The Rev. Thomas Arnold, of Northampton, commenting on the remarks of Mr. Howard, said that he had no doubt of his success, and advised the use of the microphone as an aid to his endeavor. Mr. Richard Elliott, of the Old Kent Road Asylum, said:

I endeavor to classify the amount of hearing possessed: I find that this is, in many cases, a difficult thing to do. For some seem to possess a degree of hearing unconsciously to themselves. What must to some be, at first, a mere rumbling, may, when satisfactory results in oral teaching are gained, become definite, and as such lead to a significant meaning being attached to what before had none. In my classification, I place (1) those who have no hearing whatever; (2) those who can distinguish between sound and silence; (3) those who can distinguish between vowel sounds, such as broad *a*, *oo*, and *e*; (4) those who can imitate words fairly; (5) those who can imitate sentences. As the result of this examination, I have come to the conclusion that at least fifty per cent. of our population can distinguish between sound and silence. The question is, whether this power can be so cultivated as to be of any use in the process of education. Are there any instruments to magnify sounds, and become to hearing what spectacles are to sight?

He works best who works with nature, not against her.

HAMLET IN DUMB SHOW.

AN ENTERTAINMENT BY THE SOUTH LONDON DEAF AND DUMB DRAMATIC CLUB.

A curious entertainment was given last night in the theatre attached to the Home Assembly Rooms at Kensington Park. Of the passers-by in the street without, whose attention happened to be arrested by the printed posters beside the door, probably the greater part learned for the first time that there exists in this neighborhood a society calling itself "The South London Deaf and Dumb Dramatic Club." The members of this institution had ventured to invite the public to a performance by a company composed entirely of deaf-mutes, and therefore incapable of delivering the dialogue otherwise than by the movements of their fingers.

Naturally it would be expected that the projectors of the enterprise would have selected some piece of slight and lively character, suited to the necessary slowness of such a mode of interpretation, and congenial to the peculiar vivacity of the deaf and dumb. The ambition of the club, however, had taken a higher flight. There had been, as we understood, a formal vote taken of the members, the result being that the choice fell by an overwhelming majority upon the play of "Hamlet." Considerable compression had, we need hardly say, been found necessary. When, indeed, has this, the longest of the works of Shakespeare, been played in its entirety? But though the five acts were reduced to four, and drastic methods of abridgment had been applied, even to scenes and passages with which the playgoer's eye and ear are familiar, the whole constituted a consecutive and intelligible presentment of the story.

Some six hundred persons assembled in the theatre, the greater part of whom were deaf-mutes of both sexes, who kept up a constant exchange of ideas, or chatted with the attendants, who were also deaf-mutes, until the curtain rose upon such primitive indications of the ramparts of the Castle of Elsinore as the limited nature of the resources of the little theatre afforded.

When it is known that the whole of the dialogue was interpreted *pari passú* by word of mouth by the treasurer of the club, who stood upon a table on the right side of the proscenium, it will perhaps be imagined that the whole thing was inexpressibly tedious. As a fact, however, the speaking portion occasioned no delay, but had, on the contrary, to measure its pace by the digital expression of the personages.

The ghost of Hamlet's father, it may be admitted at once, had little of the weird or supernatural about him. His black helmet was too like the familiar head-gear of the metropolitan police to awaken strange or romantic ideas—not to speak of his gray garments, which somewhat resembled the costume of a Highland gillie. It is only fair to say, however, that the actor, Mr. Wells, maintained a certain regal port and manner.

More remarkable still was the Hamlet of Mr. Maguire, a young gentleman with a good figure and an expressive cast of countenance, whose customary suit of solemn black was thoroughly orthodox, and was, moreover, worn by him with a princely air. Many a Hamlet of fair stage experience might have been sadly disconcerted by the little accident which befell the dumb Prince of Denmark at the outset, owing to the sudden giving way of the seat on which he had intended to deliver his first soliloquy, but the actor was fully equal to the occasion. Truth to tell, his acting, both here and in the first colloquy with the Ghost upon the platform of the castle, and, indeed, throughout, was distinguished by excellent action and by much subtle play of features.

In order to fully appreciate these merits, it is necessary to bear in mind the peculiar difficulties of the deaf-mute dramatic student. There are words, and, indeed, whole passages, in the dialogue which are beyond the range of ideas of the deaf and dumb, and of which they can therefore only obtain some dim comprehension. A more noteworthy difficulty still is the fact that their fingers are always engaged. It is a common complaint against amateurs that they rarely know exactly "what to do with their hands." The performers of last night were certainly under no difficulty of that sort. Their chief embarrassment, on the contrary, arose from their being compelled to make their hands do the double duty of speaking for them and serving the purposes of gesture. How much the Italian pantominists can convey by movements of the hands is well known, but their expressive art would undoubtedly be paralyzed if they were compelled at the same time to keep their fingers busily employed in forming the letters of the deaf and dumb alphabet. The deaf-mutes get over this difficulty partially by suspending the dialogue now and then, while with great rapidity they clap a hand fervently to the heart, or thoughtfully to the forehead, or otherwise.

The stage direction "noise without" was interpreted by startling inarticulate sounds behind the rude contrivances which served as "wings."

It was common to see the interpreter between the acts conveying explanatory information to the audience with his fingers, and even carrying on an animated dialogue over the heads of the assemblage with a visitor at the far end of the room.

Curious again was the comparative silence between the acts, in the place of the busy hum and murmur which run through the ordinary theatre at such times, though during the performance frequent laughter and applause testified to the keen appreciation of the spectators.

On the other hand, the proceedings of "the baby," which never fails to turn up among the audience of a suburban theatre, elicited last night none of the customary cries of "Hush!" or "Take it out!" For the first time, perhaps, at any performance of a serious play this traditional disturber was a chartered libertine, its vocal utterances being found to be perfectly compatible with the peaceable and uninterrupted progress of the dialogue.

We must not omit to mention a graceful and winning Ophelia in the person of Miss Clarmonte, who even delivered the ballads with some effect, and rendered the mad scene with more pathos than might be thought possible in an Ophelia who can not throw her arms about save when her share in the dialogue is temporarily suspended for that purpose.

The representation was essentially an intelligent one, and in many respects was extremely interesting.—*London News.*

MIND YOUR EYES.

M. Francesque Sarcey, the well-known French critic, has written a little work which is well worth the perusal of physicians, by virtue of its charming style and the freshness and force with which he describes the course and the dangers of near-sightedness.

His book is an autobiography, so far as relates to his eyes. He begins: "I was born near-sighted, dreadfully near-sighted. Many physicians assert that persons are never born near-sighted, but only become so. However, Science may think what she pleases, but I was born myopic."

The very day on which his infirmity was discovered is indelibly stamped on his memory, and his account of it is quite worth transcribing. "One day, prompted by the spirit of mischief, I got hold of the big silver spectacles which my father always wore, and clapped them on. Fifty years have passed away since then, but the sensation I experienced is keen and thrilling to this day. I gave a cry of astonishment and joy. Up to that moment I had seen the lofty dome above me only as thick, green cloth, through which no ray of sunlight ever fell. Now, O wonder and delight, I saw that in this dome were many little brilliant chinks; that it was made of myriad separate and distinct leaves, through whose intertices the sunshine shifted, imparting to their greenery a thousand tones of light and shade. But what amazed me most, what so enchanted me that I can not speak of it to this day without emotion, was that I saw suddenly between the leaves, and far away beyond them, little glimpses of the bright, blue sky. I clapped my hands in ecstasy. I was mad with astonishment and delight."

Very high myopia like Sarcey's is rare; but moderate degrees of myopia are very common; and myopia, as Sarcey states, is increasing and spreading through Europe like some epidemic disease. Among the ancients it appears to have been practically unknown. As evidence of this, M. Sarcey refers to the ancient amphitheatres in which thirty thousand spectators sat and viewed the games without a glass. Perhaps, to be sure, the myopes of those days might have learned to stay at home. However, that myopia is increasing, there can be no doubt. In fifteen years the proportion of undoubted myopes in the Polytechnic School of France has risen from thirty to fifty per cent.; and eighty per cent. of the students have to wear glasses.

M. Sarcey urges his readers with profound emphasis to remember that myopia has a tendency to increase, unless numberless precautions are taken, and that all myopic eyes are weak eyes, to be looked after carefully by their possessor. In his own case the result of over-use and misuse of his eyes, especially his attempts to get along without glasses, was that he lost the eyesight of one eye entirely, through detachment of the retina, and that a cataract developed in the other.

The loss of the eye he attributes to the effects of studying when a boy in a badly lighted school-room, and he invokes all mothers to examine the school-rooms. "If they be not fairly flooded with light, take your son home again. To leave him bent for ten years over dimly lighted books, is, if he has the least tendency to this trouble, almost certain to lay up myopia for his manhood; if he be already myopic, it is to assure him a blind old age."

Sarcey's description of the development of his cataract and of its removal is vivid and dramatic. The operation was successful, and he now sees distinct objects even better than before. The epilogue to his story is: "Remember that all extreme myopia ends almost infallibly in cataract, and that nearly all myopia may become extreme if the eyes are abused."

While Sarcey's views are somewhat tinctured by the bitterness of his personal experience, his warnings are wise and timely, and should be widely read.—*Medical Record.*

SALISBURY STEAK.—The Salisbury steak is made by taking the best slices of the "round" of beef, which are chopped with *dull* knives, the object being not to cut but rather to pound the meat. Treated thus, the pulp comes to the top, while the tough, fibrous portion remains below. This pulp is scraped off and made into cakes like sausage-cakes, or into the shape of a good-sized steak, and *gently* broiled on a gridiron: meat gently cooked is more digestible than raw. The fire must be good, so that the meat may be rapidly cooked—cooked on the outside, but almost raw inside. A little salt and pepper and a small amount of butter added make a not unpalatable dish, which contains all the strength of the beef, but none of the tough, indigestible portion. In chronic cases this diet is used exclusively by physicians who profess to practise according to the Salisbury method.—*N. Y. Med. Times.*

REVIEWS.

Beccaria et le Droit Penal: Essai par M. César Cantù, Auteur de l'Histoire universelle: Ouvrage traduit, annoté, précédé d'un Avant-propos et d'une Introduction, par Jules Lacointa, ancien Avocat général à la Cour de Cassation, et C. Delpech, Conseiller a la Cour d'appel de Montpellier: Paris, Libraire de Firmin-Didot et Cie., Imprimeurs de l'Institut, Rue Jacob, 56: 1885.—Pp. 335.*

This work deserves a more extended notice than the space at our command will allow. The eminent judge and historian who is its author, enjoyed the rare distinction of having his portrait in marble, in bas-relief, placed upon the wall of the atrium of the Palace of the Archives of Lombardy, in 1183, with the inscription in Latin, *A Césare Cantù vivo;* and a similar medallion was attached by his compatriots to the house in which he was born, at Brivio. Published originally in Italian language, in 1862, the French translators have enjoyed the advantage of the assistance of the author himself, who has contributed so much additional matter, as to constitute this in a sense a new and revised edition of the original.

M. Cantù sketches in outline the penal system of Europe prior to the time of Beccaria, and the long struggle for the abolition of torture. Beccaria was not an innovator; he condensed into a few pages the substance of innumerable volumes. Not learned in the law, nor in history, he relied upon his individual reason; he had the wisdom of the heart, he respected human nature, hated oppression, and placed the reform of criminal jurisprudence on the secure ground of a pure morality. His life is fully described, his opinions discussed, and the effect of his treatise on Crimes and Punishments, which appeared in 1764, upon the subsequent history of legislation is traced with precision, discrimination, and an affluence of learning which is truly delightful. Both the bibliography and the philosophy of the controversies to which the work of Beccaria gave rise are illustrated as we have not elsewhere seen it done in an equally interesting and satisfactory manner. It is wonderful that a young man of twenty-seven years should have had the skill and good fortune, by one hundred pages of matter not especially new, but well put and well timed, to have developed the programme of all the reforms that have characterized the past hundred years in the direction of an improved criminal system. No name is more illustrious in its sphere.

We have read with interest also the introduction by the translators, in which we find a brief résumé of the progress of criminal jurisprudence throughout the world during the last twenty years.

Criminal legislation has made greater progress than criminal procedure. The tripartite analysis of offences tends to give place to a simpler division into offences which do and which do not involve criminal intent. The debate over attempts to commit crime which prove unsuccessful is drawing to a close. The theories of complicity, justification, circumstances of extenuation and of aggravation, and prescription, have been very fully elaborated. As to the hierarchy of crimes and of penalties it is in process of general revision and reconstruction. A tendency to less severity in dealing with offenders is apparent. The attack upon capital punishment continues, and it is around this point that the controversies of modern times centre. Beccaria was the first to denounce it.

MM. Lacointa and Delpech admire the publicity of criminal procedure in Great Britain, but think that it is carried too far when the preliminary examination is also public, and prefer the French system, under which only the final trial is open to the public. Trial by jury is becoming more general. Many legislators desire to abridge the duration of preventive detention, and in a number of codes the time of such detention is accounted as a part of the penalty.

Nowhere is the right of defence denied to the accused. The institution of the office of public prosecutor in England, by the act of 1879, is hailed as a long step in the direction of a ministry of public justice. The right of pardon and commutation of sentence continues to defy regulation.

The progress made in codification of the criminal law is remarkable. We note some of the principal recent changes, in chronological order:

1864. Penal code adopted by Sweden.
1865. Penal code in Denmark.
1867. Penal code in Belgium.
1870. Amendments made to the code in Spain.
1870. Penal code for the North German Confederation.
1871. The same made applicable to the entire German empire.
1871. Penal code in the Swiss canton of Zurich.
1874. Penal code in canton of Geneva.
1874. Reform of criminal procedure in canton of Neufchatel.
1874. Code of criminal procedure in Austria.
1876. Amendments to code in Germany.
1876. Law of criminal procedure in Italy; institution of trial by jury.
1878. Code of crimes and penalties in Hungary.
1879. Hungary adopts code of contraventions.
1879. Code of criminal procedure in Germany.
1881. Penal code in the Pays-Bas.
1881. Military penal code in Denmark.
1882. Military penal code in Sweden.
1882. Amended law of criminal procedure in Spain.

The above is only a partial list. Even Egypt has promulgated several codes. Japan is moving in the same direction, possibly too rapidly for her own good.

The principle of conditional liberation is making progress, and the death penalty is less frequently enforced.

Extradition is becoming general. The right of asylum no longer survives, even in Spain, except for some special offences and for political crimes.

International rights in literary, artistic, and industrial property are gaining recognition. The relation between nations are such in this age, with its mails and telegraphs, that whatever is excellent in the legislation of one country is sure to find imitation by others.

This whole movement may be traced to the work of Beccaria as its point of departure.

The Punishment and Prevention of Crime. By Col. Sir Edmund F. Du Cane, K. C. B., R. E., Chairman of Commissioners of Prisons, Chairman of Directors of Prisons, Inspector-General of Military Prisons, Surveyor-General of Prisons. London, McMillan & Co.: 1885.—Pp. 235.

This is one of the English Citizen series of publications, and its special interest arises from the high official station of its distinguished author. It is, in a sense, a eulogy upon the present prison system of Great Britain, and an argument to prove the wisdom of the change by which, in 1877, the "visiting justices were abolished and the prisons handed over to the Secretary of State and the Prison Commissioners."

Prior to the passage of this act there were 113 county, borough, and liberty prisons, and these were managed and superintended by about 2,000 justices. This number has been reduced to 59, while the gross amount of prison accommodation is only reduced from 27,392 to about 23,089. The annual saving thus effected has been $350,000. Sir Edmund claims an improvement in the discipline, dietary and sanitary arrangements; a decrease in the death-rate, the number of suicides, and the punishments; greater variety of employment, better and more uniform accounts, and a larger sum of money granted in aid of discharged prisoners. He further remarks:

The concentration of administration of all prisons has made it possible to collect certain statistics showing the general flow and disposal of the prison population to be as under, from an average of six years:

* Baccaria and Penal Law: Essay by M. César Cantù, author of A Universal History; Translated, annotated, and preceded by a preface and an introduction, by Jules Lacointa, formerly attorney-general to the Court of Cassation, and C. Delpech, Counsellor to the Court of Appeals at Montpellier.

The average number at the beginning of the year has been	18,033
Number received yearly	193,485
Number removed to convict and other local prisons, schools, and reformatories	8,125
Discharged on pardon or commutation, license, termination of sentence, or commitment and bailed after committal	185,504
Removed to lunatic asylum	164
Escaped	5
Died from natural causes	152
Committed suicide	14
Executed	12

He states that in England the prison population is larger in summer than in winter, and that usually a correspondence may be remarked between the rise and fall of the numbers which represent the prison population and that of the almshouses. "The remarkably steady and sustained decrease in our prison population of late years must be considered to show that recent legislation, with which it so remarkably coincides in point of time, has in principle and in execution not only completely succeeded in its object of promoting uniformity, economy, and improved administration, but also in that which is the main purpose of all, the repression of crime."

We confess to a feeling of disappointment in this book, partly because it contains so little that has not been told before, but chiefly because it deals so superficially with the philosophy of the prison question. It seems to us that the author should not have contented himself with declaring the fact of a coincidence in point of time between recent legislation and the decline in the number of prisoners committed, but should have explained precisely in what manner such legislation has operated to bring about the diminution of which he boasts.

So far as the opinions expressed by him indicate the point of view from which he regards the subject, it is, we think, clear that he holds firmly to notions which are gradually disappearing in the light of modern civilization. He insists strongly on the deterrent and retributive features of the prison system:

Reformatory influences should predominate in dealing with the younger criminals; in the older and more hardened the penal element should have the first place, both on account of its effect on themselves and its influence in deterring others; and for incorrigibles, the only mode of protecting society against them is that they should be entirely removed from temptation which they cannot withstand, and be made use of as examples to others.

The scattered remarks on prison dietaries, prison labor, and the education of prisoners, all agree with this fundamental conception. For instance:

All privileges of increased diet have been abolished since 1864, as it was justly thought that to hold out prospects of food as an inducement to good behavior was to appeal to the baser feelings, such as a good moral education should endeavor to suppress.

Again:

In addition to these is the punishment of hard, dull, useless, uninteresting, monotonous labor. It is necessary to resort to this for its penal effect.

Of education he says:

Experience has shown that literary education has not the reformatory influence on prisoners which was once expected from it, and that moral and industrial education are the most potent of the educational influences which can be employed with that object. It is obvious that it would be bad policy to diminish the deterrent influence of penal discipline in favor of those who are ignorant.

He appears to favor capital punishment, and is an advocate of strictly cellular imprisonment. A separate cell to each prisoner is, in his judgment, the essential feature of all good prison architecture, and there can be no effective prison system without it. "The education," he says, "given to prisoners, whether literary or technical, should be carried out without sacrificing the great moral and disciplinary advantages of the separating of prisoners, on which the best modern prison systems are founded."

The following is Sir Edmund du Cane's description of the present English prison system of dealing with criminals of the higher grades:

A sentence of penal servitude is divided into three principal stages. During the first stage, which continues for nine months in all cases, the prisoner passes his whole time—excepting the period allotted to prayers and exercise—in his cell, apart from all other prisoners, working at some employment of an industrial or remunerative character. During the second, he sleeps and has his meals in a separate cell, but works in association, under a close and strict supervision, at employment suited to him. The third period is that during which he is conditionally released from prison, but kept under the supervision of the police, and liable for any infraction of the condition of his release to be returned to prison, there to fulfil the portion of his sentence which remained unexpired at the time of his release. A stage, intermediate between the public works and the conditional release, is applied to women, who may be sent for nine months before their release on license to "refuges"—establishments managed by private persons, who interest themselves in preparing the women for discharge, and in procuring suitable situations for them.

To the question why, if the effects of the first nine months of separate imprisonment by day and night are good, both in a penal and in a reformatory sense, the same treatment should not be followed throughout the whole of the sentence, he replies:

The reason is, that it has always been held that we must bear in mind that the prisoner should not only be punished and taught what is right, but should be returned to society fitted both morally and physically to fulfil his proper duties in the battle of life. It cannot be expected that this object would be fulfilled by his perpetual seclusion in a cell for years, with no communication with his fellows—an artificial state of existence absolutely opposed to that which nature points out as the condition of mental, moral, and physical health, and entirely unlike that which he is to be prepared to follow on his discharge from prison.

The system of classification of prisoners is thus explained:

Every convict may, during his sentence, pass through four classes, called the probation, the third, the second, and the first class, and certain selected prisoners are also placed, during the last year of their sentence, in a special class.

The probation class must last for one year; nine months of it are passed in a close prison, as already stated, the other three months on public works.

The third and second class must each last for one year at least, and the remainder of the sentence may be passed in the first class, unless a prisoner is promoted to the special class, into which he may enter during his last year.

Promotion into each of these classes is followed by certain privileges, and each class wears its own distinctive badge.

No system of progressive classification can be maintained without the aid of marks:

To every convict is assigned the duty of earning a number of marks proportioned to the length of his sentence. These marks are awarded to each prisoner according to the degree of his industry: if the prisoner earns them at the lowest rate, he will serve out the whole of his sentence; should he earn the highest rate, he will get off about one fourth; if at any intermediate rate, he will earn proportionate remission.

The record by marks applies not only to the amount of remission the prisoner can gain from his sentence, but also to every step in the classes he passes through during his imprisonment: for instance, he is required to pass at least a year in each of the classes, but during that time he must earn a definite number of marks, or else his promotion is delayed; and, further, the gratuity which he earns in each class is calculated according to the number of marks he earns.

To ensure a fair value in marks being assigned to each man's industry, not only is a rigid supervision and check maintained on the working parties by the principal warders, the chief warder, deputy governor and governor, who pay particular and especial attention to this point; but the prisoner's work is measured by a staff of professional officers, employed for the purpose, who act quite independently of the regular discipline staff, and whose measurements are priced out in money, and afford a check and test of the correctness of the assignment of the marks of industry.

Every prisoner is furnished with a card, on which, periodically, his earnings in marks are recorded, and if he feels himself unfairly dealt with, he has free right to complain, and his grievances are investigated.

In this manner, day by day, week by week, and year by year, he can count and record the progress he is making towards an advance in class, in accumulation of money, and towards conditional release; and he is made perfectly to see and feel that his fate is in his own hands, and that he has something more to work and to hope for than the mere avoidance of punishment.

We are somewhat surprised to find no acknowledgment of indebtedness for any of the features of this admirable system to Captain Maconochie or Sir Walter Crofton. But

the historical portions of Sir Edmund's book are, on the whole, the least satisfactory. We notice that, on page 53, he writes: "Mr. Blackburn had about 1789 designed for Howard, who perhaps had seen San Michele, a model prison at Liverpool on the radiating plan." We refer him to pages 113 and 114 of the first volume of John Howard's works for a description of this prison, accompanied by an engraving, and to page 58 of the second volume, where he remarks: "In the noble hospital of San Michaele I passed two mornings, and found it sadly neglected by the cardinal and the inspectors, who never visit it." What is certain is, that Howard had seen the radiating prison of Ghent, in Belgium, which was the first example of this type of construction in the world, for he gives a plan of it, facing pages 144 and 145 of his first volume.

We conclude this notice with a quotation of the author's résumé of the principles established by English experience:

(1) A well-devised system of secondary punishment should provide for subjecting those sentenced to it to a uniform course of penal, deterrent discipline.

(2) Every means possible should be adopted for developing and working on the higher feelings of the prisoners, directly by moral, religious, and secular instruction, and indirectly by insuring industry, good conduct, and discipline, through appealing to the hope of advantage or reward, as well as by the fear of punishment.

(3) With a view to deterrence, as well as reformation, it is desirable that every short sentence and the first part of every long sentence should be undergone on the separate system as developed at Pentonville.

(4) Before discharging the long-sentenced convict to a full or modified degree of liberty, he should be subjected to further training, in which he should be associated, under supervision, while at labor, but separated at all other times.

(5) Properly constructed prison buildings, providing, among other things, for this separation, are all-important requisites for the success of the system.

(6) Employment should be provided and industry enforced or encouraged for all.

(7) Care should be taken to select and train a good staff of skilled and responsible officials to supervise and carry on the work of the convict establishments, and means adopted to prevent their work being hindered or defeated by the prisoners being brought into close contact on works or otherwise with free men who are under no such responsibilities.

(8) Those who, on discharge, are disposed to follow honest courses should be guided and assisted in their endeavors, and a careful watch should be kept over all till they have re-established their character.

The Citizen and the Neighbor; or, Men's Rights and Duties as they live together in the State and in Society, by Charles F. Dole. Third edition. Boston: Unitarian Sunday-School Society, 7 Tremont Place, 1885.—Pp. 100.

The preface to this little book opens with the words: "The subject of this manual may seem to remove it somewhat from the ordinary text-books used in Sunday-schools. Its aim is not, however, remote from the purpose of the Sunday-school, if such purpose is to help form true and useful lives; for the spirit and the ethical principles of religion ought to be made apply especially to the solution of social and political questions.

The first part treats of political duties—the purpose of government, the abuses of government, what the good citizen ought to do for the government. Part second discusses economical duties — how barbarism, piracy, caste, and slavery hindered the world from growing rich, what wealth is, to whom it belongs, and how it is divided, the institution of property, the grievances of the poor and their causes, the uses and duties of property, buyers and sellers, and employers and employed. In part third we have a brief account of social rights and duties—the rights and duties of neighbors, the treatment of crime, how to help the poor, and temperance and purity. Part fourth is devoted to international duties—the golden rule among nations, war and arbitration.

Each chapter is followed by questions which do not relate exclusively to the text, but are rather designed to suggest additional points for reflection and investigation by the student.

Whatever may be thought of the substitution of the study of sociology for that of the Bible in Sunday-schools, it is certain that this book, in the hands of a wise, experienced, well-informed parent or secular teacher, would have an excellent effect in training any thoughtful boy or girl for the practical discharge of the duties of life as a member of society; and we can cordially commend it to teachers and parents, as worthy of a careful examination, at least. We should be glad to see it in the hands of young people generally.

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE.

THE ELMIRA REFORMATORY.

I sit, as I write, in the office of the Elmira Reformatory this bright, beautiful day in May, and look across the lovely valley of the Chemung river to the range of hills on the other side, adorned with the varied tints of spring. And as I gaze, I wonder whether the awakening of nature, after the long, cold night of winter, may not prefigure the awakening, some day, of the public conscience to the necessity and obligation of a more intelligent and hopeful treatment of crime.

My mind is far away, in Australia, with Maconochie, just fifty years ago, when he was secretary to Sir John Franklin, then Governor of Van Diemen's Land. For it was there that he conceived the "mark" system, in its application to prison discipline. It would scarcely astonish me, if, on looking up from the paper to take fresh ink, I should see the spirit of Maconochie sitting opposite me, smiling approval of the realization of his dream in this prison. I fear that this man must be numbered with England's forgotten worthies. But America has heard his voice, and Brockway is his successor, his practical interpreter, who thoroughly believes that saying of his: "The mark system is a system of education." Also, that other of his sayings: "When a man keeps the key of his own prison, he is soon persuaded to fit it to the lock." The education of prisoners, and the indeterminate sentence: if Mr. Brockway can be said to have a hobby—or a pair of hobbies—these are the pair behind which he rides.

He believes in the possibilities of a prison discipline, at once rational and spiritual, which refuses to set the interest of the prisoner over against that of society at large, but which, on the contrary, recognizes that the surest protection of society consists in the reformation of the prisoner and in his rehabilitation as a law-abiding citizen. How devotedly and assiduously he pursues this ideal, those who have only heard him speak from the platform can not imagine. To know it, one must spend days at a time with him in his prison, as I have done, follow him around, listen to his conversations with his men, and discuss the subject with him, in all its bearings, over a cigar in the office at night, until long after the clock has sounded twelve.

From 1840 to 1844, Maconochie was Governor of Norfolk Island, where he experimented with the mark system on a very brutal class of convicts, and by its aid effected a remarkable transformation in the life of the colony. He returned to England, and was afterward Governor of Birmingham Gaol. He died in 1860. How far his views influenced the mind of Sir Walter Crofton, the author of the Irish prison system, I can not say. I think that Sir Walter knew Maconochie. But the Irish system has made a profound impression on the thought of the world. In 1866, Dr. E. C. Wines, then secretary of the New York Prison Association, said, in the report for that year: "Can the Irish system be adopted to advantage in this country? I have no hesitation in returning an affirmative answer, with emphasis, to this question." Others have come to a different conclusion, principally on the ground of the divided criminal jurisdiction between the States.

In 1869, partly through the influence of the New York Association, the legislature of New York passed an act for the creation of an intermediate prison, on the reformatory plan. The site selected was Elmira. It was built under an act passed in 1870 and subsequent acts. By 1876 it was ready for the reception of prisoners. A board of managers was appointed. This board organized on the 9th day of May; on the 12th Mr. Brockway was elected superintendent; and the first batch of prisoners was received, from the State prison at Auburn, July 24th.

Notwithstanding my father's confident hope of seeing the Crofton system introduced into the United States, the Elmira Reformatory, in so far as it is not the creation of Mr. Brockway himself, though it embodies some of the principles of the Irish system, is more properly described as an adaptation, in a modified form, of the plan advocated by Maconochie.

It differs from it, however, in one very important particular. What Maconochie desired to see, was the imposition of definite sentences in marks, which were to have, in prison, the value, and perform the function, of money. That ideal has been realized nowhere; and there is no reason to think that it is practicable, or in fact desirable. It must be regarded as a speculative hypothesis, useful only as a transitional step in the process of working out the true theory of prison discipline, a problem whose solution seems somewhat nearer since the establishment of the prison at Elmira.

The tract of land on which the Reformatory is situated, includes 280 acres, of which thirteen and a half acres are enclosed by a wall twenty feet high. The arrangement of the buildings is similar to that in Ameri-

can prisons generally, and need not be here described. The number of cells, including the rear extension of the east wing, now nearly completed, is 756. They are of the usual pattern, with grated iron doors, and are built in tiers, one above the other, back to back, in blocks. But there are fifty-six "privileged cell," for men in the first (or highest) grade, which are larger than the rest, and have grated windows as well as doors; 136 additional, of extra size, without windows; and a so-called "guard-house," containing punishment cells, which, instead of being parallelograms in form, are "V" shaped, to avoid corners. The superintendent attaches considerable value to these, which are a novelty, since they are entered only at the apex of the "V," and thus facilitate the taking of a refractory prisoner out, without risk to the officers.

The cost of the prison, for construction, to September 30, 1885, was a trifle over $1,000,000. The additions now making to it will increase this cost to $1,100,000.

The expenditures for maintenance, the earnings of prisoners, and the net cost to the State, from the opening, are shown in the following

Table.

Year.	Maintenance.	Earnings.	Net Cost.
1876	17,373 53		17,373 53
1877	36,631 40		36,631 40
1878	31,261 78	4,322 92	26,938 86
1879	56,762 51	35,780 45	20,982 06
1880	84,338 57	62,657 35	21,681 22
1881	85,915 96	45,055 59	40,860 37
1882	95,099 63	64,653 67	30,445 96
1883	97,893 03	68,196 03	29,697 00
1884	98,719 41	72,903 18	25,815 63
1885	104,411 16	74,292 56	30,118 60
Total,	$708,406 98	$427,861 75	$280,545 23

The average cost of maintenance, during this period, has been about $165 per annum for each prisoner, of which $100 has been defrayed from the profits of his labor, so that he has cost the State about $65. During 1876–77, they were engaged in the construction of the Reformatory; from 1878 to 1880, they were employed on State account; since 1880, their labor has been leased to contractors. Their earnings, under the public-account system, were $165,170.02; under the contract system, $262,691.73. Since the passage of the act prohibiting the contracting of convict labor in New York, as existing contracts expire, they can not be renewed. Consequently, the institution now has 200 men at work on State account in the brush shop. To avoid the idleness which, it was feared, must result from the failure of the legislature to make any appropriation for working capital, to replace the capital formerly invested by contractors but now withdrawn, an arrangement has been made, by which the product of the shop each day is sold the same day, and settlements are made with the purchaser weekly. The institution owns the machinery and supplies the raw material.

To come, now, to those features of the Elmira plan which are peculiar to it, and more or less novel, I begin with the law under which it is operated.

(1) This law provides that the managers shall receive "male criminals, between the ages of sixteen and thirty years, and not known to have been previously sentenced to a State prison or penitentiary, on conviction for a felony." As will be observed, it is a prison intended for a special class of criminals, namely: young men not previously convicted of crime. (2) It further provides that every "sentence to the Reformatory of a person hereafter convicted of a felony or other crime shall be a general sentence to imprisonment, and the courts imposing sentence shall not fix or limit the duration thereof. On the contrary, the power to terminate the imprisonment is vested in the managers of the institution, with the single exception that it shall not exceed the maximum term provided by law for the crime for which the prisoner was convicted and sentenced." (3) It directs that, for the purpose of enabling them to determine the date of the prisoner's release, the managers shall establish the "mark" system. (4) Power is given them to "establish rules and regulations by which prisoners may be allowed to go upon parole outside of the Reformatory buildings and enclosure, but to remain, while on parole, in [their] legal custody and under [their] control, and subject at any time to be taken back within the enclosure of said Reformatory." (5) When it appears to them "that there is a strong or reasonable probability that any prisoner will live and remain at liberty without violating the law, and that his release is not incompatible with the welfare of society, then they shall issue to such prisoner an absolute release from imprisonment." (6) The managers are not allowed to entertain any form of application for the release of any inmate.

The number of prisoners received under this law, in ten years, was 2,361, of whom, at the close of 1885, there were still in prison 667. Of the 1,694 outside, the number who had been released on parole was 1,260. This number would have been larger but for the transfer to the Reformatory of 185 men in State prison under a "definite" sentence, and 100 others committed under a "definite" sentence by United States courts, or by courts of the State of New York, prior to the year 1877, when the original act was amended. Of the 1,260 "indefinites" released conditionally, the number "absolutely" released, prior to the expiration of their parole, was 644, or about two thirds; of whom 109 were absolutely released at the date of parole, to enable them to go to other States, and 735 were so released at the end of six months, having conducted themselves well in all respects for that time.

Mr. Brockway considers that 1,023, or 81.2 per cent., are to be accounted as having done well since their release from prison. This opinion is based on positive evidence in 817 cases, and on a reasonable calculation of the probabilities in the remaining 306 cases. Allowing for a possible error of judgment in one half of the latter, the percentage of "probable" reformation would still be not less than 73 per cent., which is a most encouraging result.

The cost of reformation (if it is proper to think of it in this connection) may be said to have been, in each of these cases, to the State, over and above their earnings, about $200, which is a small sum to pay for the protection of society against the depredations of a probable criminal. This is the maximum cost, figured upon the basis of the total expenditures on account of all who have left the Reformatory. Were it figured only on the cost of the paroled men who have done well, it would not exceed $100. Who then will say that a reformatory prison "does not pay"?

I had the pleasure of being present, when a group of young men entered the prison, and of hearing the explanation of the system to be pursued in dealing with them, given by the superintendent. A dozen of them, perhaps, were ushered into his private office and invited to take seats around him. They presented the appearance of a class in school, listening attentively to a lecture by their teacher. Mr. Brockway informed them that they had not been sent here for punishment, but for reformation; that they could be held by the managers, if refractory to treatment, for the maximum term for which they might otherwise have been sent to State prison—usually five years—but that they could, by yielding to the influences brought to bear on them, and coöperating in the effort to secure their amendment, shorten the term of their incarceration, so that it would be possible for any one of them to earn his release at the expiration of twelve months; that they would be required to do three things—to obey the rules of the institution, to perform their allotted task in the workshops, and to make satisfactory progress in their studies in school; that they would be marked in accordance with their actual desert in each of these three particulars; that the highest mark which is given is three under each head, or nine in all; that the number of grades into which the population of the prison is divided is three, each of which wears a distinctive dress, and is subjected to a discipline varying in severity, with a different diet, and more or fewer privileges; that men are promoted or degraded according to their marks; that each of them would be furnished with a pass-book, in which his marks would be recorded, and would receive notice by a system of colored tickets, of every infraction of rules for which he might be reported; and that, if released prior to the expiration of sentence, it would be on parole, with the reservation of the right, on the part of the prison authorities, to bring him back, in case of misconduct, but with the assurance that uniform good conduct for six months on parole would be rewarded with an absolute release. He explained to them various details, of which I recall the following: Every prisoner, at his entrance, is placed in the second or intermediate grade; if not reported for six months—that is to say, if he earns six "nines" in succession, at the end of six months he is promoted to the first grade; and if he earns six more nines in succession, he is then a candidate for conditional liberation. This is the best that any one can do. Nines are forfeited by misconduct, of which the prisoner, as has been said, receives notice, in the form of a "neglect" report (on pink paper), a "dereliction" report (on yellow paper), or an "offence" report (on chocolate paper). Six of the first, three of the second, or one of the third, in any one month, signifies the loss of a "nine." A single nine credited to a third-grade man promotes him to the second; but it takes six of them to secure a promotion from the second grade to the first. The condition of admission to the first grade is simply a perfect record, but the conditions of a parole are, in addition to a perfect record, the confidence of the superintendent, and employment when released. No paroled prisoner is allowed to leave until a place has been found for him to work.* In the third grade, men dress in red, march in lock-step, are deprived of tea and coffee, library books, gas in their cells at night, and the privilege of writing letters; their cells are poorly furnished—they are not allowed a chair, but must sit on the bed. In the intermediate grade, they are given a citizen's suit, march by twos, not in the lock-step, have tea and coffee, library books, gas at night to study by, a chair in their cells, sheets, slippers, brushes, receive letters once a week, and may write once a month. In the first grade, the men are dressed in blue cloth, wear a military cap, have spring beds, take their meals in a separate dining-room, are allowed to converse at table, write once a week, move by fours, under a captain of their own number, may burn gas for an hour longer at night, are eligible to appointments of trust in the prison, and the patrolmen are given the privilege of the guard floor.

Besides the full records of the prisoners' antecedents, made at the time of their reception, and subsequently filled out more completely, if additional knowledge of them is obtained from any source, a ledger ac-

* The imposition of this condition has the following effect: When it becomes apparent to any prisoner that he will probably succeed in the effort to earn his parole, he begins to write to every person that he knows, to find employment for him, so that he can get out. Nearly all the places found, therefore, are found by the friends of prisoners, without the intervention of the prison officers, or of any prisoners' aid society.

count is opened with every inmate, a page being assigned to each, with a line for every month, in which are entered his merits and demerits. I can, perhaps, give some idea of the nature of this record by quoting, in substance, the history of two men—prisoners 275 and 276—who entered the same day, the maximum possible sentence in the case of each being five years. Prisoner 275, at the date of his admission, was sixteen years old. He was committed for burglary. His page, in the column reserved for remarks, is black with the memoranda of his misconduct. He was continually reported for talking in shop, short tasks, poor work, secreting bad work, neglecting his studies, failure to make up his bed, wearing his slippers in the yard, having food in his cell, defacing library books, disturbing the hall, foul language at table, whistling, uttering threats, insolence, persistent disobedience, loitering, fighting, having a knife in his possession, passing notes, destroying his conduct record, etc. During the first six months, out of a possible maximum of fifty-four marks, he earned forty-three, and was reduced to the third grade, August 6th. During the next four months, he earned twenty marks out of a possible thirty-six, but was restored to the second grade, arbitrarily, December 24th, as an inducement to better behavior. Reduced again to the third grade, April 17, 1880, he was again promoted to the second, on the 2d of June, as a reward for having earned a nine the previous month. Between that date and the 31st of October, 1883, he was reduced to the third grade four times, and was in that grade when he was absolutely released, by special order of the board of managers, on account of the death of his father, having been in the Reformatory four years and nine months, having spent very nearly half his time in the third grade, and having earned, out of a possible 513 marks, only 309. His average standing was 1.8. Prisoner 276, convicted of forgery, was twenty years of age when received. He earned twelve nines in succession, and was released at the expiration of one year, with not a fault charged against his record of any sort.

But to return to Mr. Brockway and his class, whom we have left waiting too long, I will only add that after a plain, friendly talk of half an hour, he dismissed his young men with a kind word, accompanied by a smile. From his presence they were led away to the shops.

The following statement shows the character of employment and the total amount of productive labor in the institution, May 1, 1886. I give round numbers, instead of the exact figures, because they are more readily retained in the memory. The industries pursued under contract are two, the manufacture of hollow ware, 200 men, and of shoes, 150. In the brush shop, on State account, 200. The remaining 150 were employed in prison work of some description, except 15 on the sick-list, and 3 at large on special parole. Nearly fifty were engaged in productive labor, in the garden, printing office, tin shop, tailor shop, or State shoe shop. Of the remainder some were employed as clerks or mechanics, and the rest in domestic avocations. A large number are cleaners on the galleries, and a brighter, tidier prison can not be found on the earth, not even excepting the one at Louvain in Belgium. I have been repeatedly in the shops, and can testify to the activity of the men at work in them. They have the look of a hive of industry.

A new one-story building is to be occupied, as a practical school of technology, by men who will be instructed in handicrafts of all kinds, and prepared to earn their own living by the use of whatever talents they may possess, developed to a point where honesty will be more profitable than thievery, under competent teachers, some of whom will be prisoners. There was not long ago in this prison a young man who evinced a decided capacity for scientific investigation. He was granted the use of a room in connection with one of the shops, for prosecuting experiments in electricity; and he has invented a dynamo, now in use for generating the electric light in the establishment. He has been retained, since his discharge, as electrical engineer of the Reformatory.

The glory of the institution is its schools. Nothing like them can be found, I suppose, in any penal or reformatory institution in any nation. Sir Edmund Du Cane, of England, thinks that "the amount of education which can be imparted to persons who are mostly adults, in the short period for which a sentence of imprisonment endures, can in any case be but small." Were he to visit Elmira, he would have occasion to revise his judgment. In the English prisons, instruction is given in the cells, to each prisoner singly, at the rate of "not less than two lessons weekly, of a quarter of an hour each, if possible, with an interval of two days at least." The limit of instruction is: "reading, as far as Standard III. inclusive; writing, as far as transcribing a portion of the book read, and reading what has been transcribed; arithmetic, as far as casting simple money accounts, and mental calculation of small sums." That is all.

At Elmira, at the opening of the "Spring term," February 1, 1886, there were 713 prisoners, of whom 689 were in school, five days in every week, for one hour and a half each, from half past six until eight o'clock in the evening. The school is divided into three departments—primary, intermediate, and the lecture division. In the primary division there are four classes; in the intermediate two; in the lecture division two—one of which is in two sections. On the first of February there were, in the lecture division, 338 pupils; in the intermediate, 179; and in the primary, 172. The studies pursued are: reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar and composition, physical geography, history, and political economy. There are also subsidiary classes in advanced mathematics, the natural sciences, English literature, practical morality, stenography, telegraphy, and free-hand and mechanical drawing. Classes in industrial education will be formed as soon as the building which I have mentioned is ready.

The teaching being in the evening, it is not necessary to employ teachers as an addition to the regular prison staff. For a small outlay, comparatively, the services of competent persons from outside can be secured. Their labor is largely a labor of love. Of the lecturers, one is the judge of a court, one a doctor of divinity, and professor in a college, one a lawyer in active practice, and one is principal of the Elmira High School. Of the other teachers, two are principals of graded public schools, and one is a lawyer. The book-keeper of the Reformary teaches stenography and telegraphy; an educated prisoner teaches industrial drawing; and the school secretary, who is an officer of the prison, teaches the higher mathematics and English literature. Several of the prisoners are assigned to duty as assistants in teaching the illiterates.

In the printing office, each day, a sufficient number of copies of the prepared synopsis of each of the lectures on the programme for that evening is stricken off, to place one in each pupil's hand, as an aid to its comprehension and retention.

In every class, of each division, prisoners are subjected to a written examination once in each month, upon the marking for which their standing as prisoners depends, in part. I say "in part," because, first, they are also marked for industry and deportment, and second, because diligence and faithful effort to do well in school count for more than mere scholarship.

A newspaper called *The Summary* is printed in the prison, and distributed to prisoners every Sunday morning. It has considerable circulation outside, especially among the prisoners' friends. It is, in size, eight pages, eight by fourteen inches, in nonpareil type.

The library numbers 2,000 volumes, which are renewed as fast as worn out by use. Of all the principal books, there are duplicate copies. The reason for this is that the library and the English literature class are component parts of one and the same educational scheme. The English literature class includes all the members of the intermediate and lecture divisions, who are divided into two sections. Those in the lower section must read a book assigned by the teacher (who is also librarian) each month, and submit an account of it, in writing. Those in the upper section read books of a higher grade, and in addition to giving a written account of them, must answer printed questions respecting them, as to the author, date, etc. An interest in reading is stimulated by the discussions in the classes of political economy and practical morality, for it must be understood that the lecturers to these classes allow prisoners, on application by the uplifted hand, to ask questions, propound difficulties, and even exchange opinions with the lecturer or with each other. These discussions create a demand for books of reference on the topics touched. Of course, the reading of the men is not confined to the books assigned them as a school exercise, but they read for their own amusment as well.

When the school hour is over, a visitor passing down the galleries in front of the cells may mark their solitary occupants busily conning their books for another hour and a half, when, at half past nine o'clock, the lights are put out, except in certain cells, where they are allowed until half past ten. They are "earning their nines."

If space would allow, I should like to remark on the philosophy and effect of this mode of occupying the men's minds with other thoughts than those of self and crime, but I forbear.

A word as to religious teaching. Besides the practical morality class, on Sunday morning, a sermon is preached every Sunday afternoon, preceded by the reading of the Scriptures, singing, and prayer. This service is conducted either by some clergyman resident in Elmira, or, when a speaker from a distance can be obtained, by whatever clergyman or religious layman can be had for the purpose. Some of the ablest men in the country have regarded it as a privilege to have the opportunity of addressing these young men, than whom a more critical audience is rarely gathered in one place. Attentive, shrewd, sceptical, the man who seeks to influence them for good must be sincere and wide awake, or he will fail to reach them. Mass, according to the Roman ritual, is celebrated one a month, and the Jewish rabbi meets the Hebrew prisoners once in every month. But the prison has no resident chaplain.

I have sought, as much as possible, in this letter, to confine myself to bearing testimony to what I saw at Elmira, and have refrained from commenting on it. I may do so, on some future occasion. I will only add, here, for my letter is already too long, that one of the most admirable features of the establishment is the freedom with which the inmates communicate with the superintendent. Each of them is furnished with a pad of paper and pencil for this express purpose, and permitted to write notes to him at discretion. Every complaint is investigated and attended to. The number of personal interviews had by him with prisoners averages 800 a month. For the correction of injustice, where it is possible that a wrong has been done, he has organized two courts, one of equity, where the accused and accuser are brought face to face, in the presence of all the officers, and, if the case is clear, the superintendent himself gives his decision; the other a trial court, for the determination and decision of doubtful cases, which are referred to a jury of prisoners, whose verdict stands, unless unquestionably contrary to the facts. When I add, that he writes a personal letter once each month to each paroled prisoner, it will, I think, be manifest that Mr. Brockway must be a very busy man.

FRED. H. WINES.

The bill to create an institution for the education of imbecile and feeble-minded children, which was pending before the legislature of Maryland, failed to pass.

FACT AND OPINION.

The Deaf and Dumb.

The number of deaf and dumb pupils in the United Kingdom, in 1885, was 2,908, of whom 555 were day-scholars. The total number of teachers was 240.

The sign language can be taught to animals, not to say that they can make signs, but they can understand them, when made by the deaf. A deaf-mute can drive oxen.

A deaf and dumb woman in Louisville, attributes her misfortune to having been named after a deaf aunt in England, which is a pointer for those who are curious as to the causes of misfortune, and think that if these were known, a stop might be put to them. A law should be passed at once, forbidding the naming of any child after a deaf relative.

Professor Job Turner, who has been making a tour of the southern States, in the interest of the deaf and dumb, reports that in Cincinnati he was informed of the death of Mrs. William Hoagland, whose husband had thirty-six deaf and dumb relatives who first saw the light on Kentucky soil. If Mr. Bell wishes to prosecute his inquiries in this direction, he many study the interconnections of the Hoaglands, Georges, and Blounts.

The remark of Mr. J. Platt Barrett, of the Margate Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, at the Conference of Head Masters, in London, a year ago, is worth considering: "In our schools we have three classes of children. I would divide them thus: There is one class who can be taught on any system you like, mothers' sign system, sign system, or oral system. They are quick and intelligent, and their minds are constantly at work, struggling for every ray of light and every scrap of knowledge that they can obtain. A second class comprises children of moderate intelligence: with these you have to work hard and use every aid you can find, to give them sufficient education to carry them through life creditably. The third class, the residuum, and by no means a small class, lack intelligence: these children will never learn by means of words, whether they are taught orally or in writing: you can not get at them by the oral system, but only by signs.

The following table exhibits the number of the deaf and dumb population of all ages, in the United Kingdom, at each of the last four decennial censuses:

	1851.	1861.	1871.	1881.
England and Wales . .	10,314	12,236	11,528	13,295
Islands in British seas . .	84	87	77	88
Scotland	2,155	2,335	2,088	2,142
Ireland	4,747	5,653	5,544	5,136
Total	17,300	20,311	19,237	20,661

The total population of the kingdom, in 1851, was 27,551,803; in 1861 it was 29,321,288; in 1871 it was 31,845,379; and in 1881 it was 35,241,482. The number of deaf and dumb children of school age, that is, between 5 and 15 years, in 1881, was 5,129, of whom 2,890 were under instruction.

The Insane.

Lord Brabazon has succeeded Lord Shaftesbury as president of the After Care Society.

A new wing is building at Mount Pleasant, Iowa, in connection with the State Hospital for the Insane.

The price of board and treatment of county patients in the Willard Asylum has been reduced to $2.25 a week.

Dr. George C. Catlett, superintendent of State Lunatic Asylum No. 2, at St. Joseph, Missouri, died, May 19th, of cystitis.

Died, at Hartford, Connecticut, April 12th, of apoplexy, Dr. Abram Marvin Shew, superintendent of the Connecticut Hospital for the Insane.

The Maryland legislature passed a most important lunacy act, with the details of which we are not yet acquainted, but we believe that it provides for a State commission in lunacy.

The Committee on Lunacy of the Pennsylvania Board of State Charities has approved plans for the rebuilding of the insane department of the Philadelphia almshouse. It is, however, doubtful whether the common council will make the appropriations necessary to secure a fire-proof construction. Without a strict compliance with this condition the Committee refuses ro give its sanction to the project.

Dr. Henri Legrand du Saulle died at his residence in Paris, of cerebral congestion, on the 5th of May. He was the highest authority in France on mental and nervous affections: physician to the Salpetrière, principal medical officer of the prefecture of police, expert to the tribunal courts, one of the founders of the Society of Medical Jurisprudence, and president of the Medico-Psychological Society. His age was 56 years.

The State hospital for the insane at Harrisburgh, in Pennsylvania, is to be enlarged, this summer, by the addition of two buildings, to accommodate 150 patients each, or 300 in all. An appropriation of $80,000 has been made for the "erection, completion, and furnishing, ready for occupancy, of a detached group of buildings to accommodate 300 patients." This group is ultimately to consist either of four or six detached buildings. Those now in process of construction are two stories in height with one large apartment, 42½ x 93 feet, and ten single rooms, besides bath-rooms, etc., on each floor. The large room up-stairs is to be used as a dormitory and that on the lower floor as a day-room.

For two years past, the Indiana Hospital for the Insane has maintained a school for the occupation and benefit of patients. Dr. Fletcher regards teaching as one of the best methods of relieving many cases of insanity: as being absolutely curative. The employment of a teacher or two does not increase the pay-roll. If permitted to sell the materials manufactured by patients the receipts would meet the expenses of the school and more. He had, when he began, no school-room; but he has had blackboards painted on the walls in every ward in the institution, and patients, instead of defacing the plastering with nails, etc., are allowed to amuse themselves by marking with crayons. At present, since a general dining-room has been provided, the former ward dining-rooms are available for school-rooms.

Prisons and Prisoners.

It is proposed to build an addition to the New Bedford (Massachusetts) jail, to contain at least 350 cells.

The commissioners to take charge of building the new prison wing in Connecticut consists of Messrs. A. E. Burr and W. S. Bronson, of Hartford, and R. T. Hewitt, of Wethersfield.

Clarence Keifer, a convict employed in a coal-shaft at Birmingham, Alabama, escaped by climbing a wire cable an inch and a half in diameter and 204 feet in length, extending from the bottom of the shaft to the surface of the ground.

Judge Joel Branham, of Georgia, says: "A great many of the jails in this State are a disgrace to our civilization. They are built with no reference whatever to the comfort of those who may be compelled to occupy them; while, from a sanitary point of view, they are often hardly fit to be occupied by animals. There should certainly be some State supervision over all prisons, both county and municipal. I have long advocated the appointment of an inspector of such prisons, with plenary power to enforce all laws pertaining to them."

At Dedham, Massachusetts, there is a Temporary Asylum for Discharged Female Prisoners, which costs about $7,000 per year, and has an average population of 50 or 60 inmates, of whom not quite one third are children in the nursery. Besides discharged prisoners, the Home takes what are called "probation women"—that is, women who come to it directly from the court-room, being placed by the judge, at their own request, under its care for a term of several months, instead of serving a sentence in prison. Of this part of their work, the ladies in charge say: "It is far better to erect a barrier around the top of the precipice than to provide the ambulance and the hospital at the foot." The Home receives some aid from the State appropriation for discharged prisoners.

The Atlanta *Medical and Surgical Journal* says: "The county jail of Fulton county is probably one of the best in Georgia, and, for a limited number of prisoners, has adequate sanitary arrangements. There are 24 cells, 8 x 12 feet, 9 feet between floors, giving to each cell 864 cubic feet of respirable air. Seven hundred feet of respirable air per man, suitably renewed, is as little as will guarantee the health of each inmate, so that 30 prisoners is about the capacity of this jail, in the absence of better measures for its frequent renewal. A short time ago, from the federal and State courts, there were 144 prisoners crowded into it. The result was inevitable, and its cause not doubtful. A malignant fever was developed, of which a number of the prisoners died, and but for the prompt action of Judge McKay, the mortality would doubtless have been horrible. Sentence upon some was suspended, others were transferred to different prisons, and the disease at once ceased.

In ten counties of Pennsylvania, under special laws the county jails are governed by boards of inspectors appointed by the district judge for the district in which the county is included. By this method, the jails are taken measurably "out of politics," and they are the best-managed of the county prisons. The counties referred to are: Philadelphia, Delaware, Montgomery, Chester, Lancaster, Berks, Schuylkill, Northampton, Northumberland, and Alleghany. In all of these, a warden has charge, an annual report is printed, and prisoners are employed at productive labor. At the late session of the legislature, a bill was introduced, providing for the adoption of a similar system for all the counties of the State, which received a unanimous vote in the senate, and was accepted by the house, with but two votes in the negative, but was vetoed by Gov. Pattison. The ground of his veto was that the State constitution prohibits special legislation, and that the provision contained in the bill, which required the county commissioners of any county to adopt the act, prior to its taking effect in such county, rendered this special legislation. Without the clause referred to, it would have

been impossible to pass the bill. If Gov. Pattison's position is correct, what becomes of local option laws on the subject of licensed dramshops, in States whose constitution forbids special legislation?

Mr. Wm. L. Bull, of Whitford, Pa., has sent us a clipping from the *Virginian*, containing an account of a visit made by him to the Norfolk city jail, in which he speaks of the deplorable condition of the prisoners confined in it with much feeling. The women's department is separated from that occupied by the men only by a board partition, through the cracks of which the sexes are in plain sight of each other. On the second floor, at the end of the corridor, he found a pile of human excrement in a corner on the floor. The patent water-closets were clogged and literally piled up with filth, while along the floor, inside and at the base of the outer wall, ran an eight- or nine-inch gutter, wet with greasy water. In the dungeon—a perfectly dark cell—he found three negro girls lying on the floor and playing like so many kittens. Discipline did not seem to be thought of, much less attempted. There were about one hundred prisoners at the date of his visit, of whom one was an insane colored woman. He justly observes that it was a sad sight, and, we will add, a disgraceful one. Yet such scenes are not uncommon in almost any State where the legislature ignores its responsibility and suffers county authorities to do as they please in the matter of the care of accused persons and minor offenders under sentence for short terms of imprisonment.

Charity Organization.

We clip the following items bodily from the May *Bulletin* of the Charity Organization Society of New York:

Our suggestion, imported from Europe, of door-plates bearing the name of the society to be affixed to the houses of members, as a protection from the annoyance of professional beggars, is meeting with a very fair response. Enough orders have been received to justify the manufacture of plates, and several orders have already been filled, and the plates may be seen affixed to the doors of some of our first citizens. We hope to receive further requests for them, being persuaded that those who adopt them, and give to applicants only society's tickets, will be speedily rid of the sturdy mendicants who make merchandise of the kindly impulses of private households. With each plate we shall supply a neat ticket-holder to be hung within and convenient to the door. These plates are of the best quality of silver plate, one inch and five eighths by three and five eighths, enamelled sunk letters, affixed without injury to the door, and may be put either on the front or area door. In Europe they are generally put upon the front door.

No. 1 reads:	No. 2 reads:
MEMBER CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY.	C. O. S.

They cost but fifty cents each, affixed to the doors.

In further pursuance of the society's efforts to guard its members from the annoyance of professional mendicants, in addition to the name plates for affixing to the doors of private houses, the council has had prepared for business offices a sign, six by nine inches, neatly framed, lettered as follows:

This office subscribes
to the
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY,
to whom it refers all
applicants for relief.

Full directions are on the back of each frame, and attached is a box holding tickets, which may be given to every applicant, insuring careful attention to every person presenting one of them at any of the society's offices. The dissembler who shuns investigation as he or she shuns honest work, will be likely to avoid the offices where these signs are hung and where applicants are invariably referred to the society. A few of these signs, experimentally prepared, have been received with so much satisfaction by those of our members who have adopted them, that the council is preparing to supply all that may be ordered; and that the cost of so many may not be a heavy burden upon our treasury, the price for them has been fixed at the nominal cost of twenty-five cents each.

The Women's Conference held its last meeting for the season April 26th, Mrs. C. R. Lowell presiding. A paper on "Suggestions as to Preventive Work" was read by Miss Grace H. Dodge. Miss R. F. Morse explained the work of the "Mothers' Unions," and hoped for great results from these, as the mothers will be taught how to do this preventive work themselves. A paper by Miss Virginia Potter, entitled "The Girls' Friendly Societies," gave some interesting statistics concerning the work of these Societies. Miss Rosalie Butler, president of the sub-committee on visitation of the State Charities Aid Association, made an earnest appeal for visitors at the public institutions under the care of the commissioners of charities and correction. Mrs. Lowell seconded this appeal, and spoke of the fourteen thousand people "sick and in prison" in the different city institutions; and she also made an appeal for visitors for the district committees of the Charity Organization Society. The meeting then adjourned. It is hoped to resume these meetings in the fall, and ladies have been asked to send in suggestions as to the conduct of them, and also as to topics to be taken up.

Miscellaneous.

Pain is nature's alarm-bell.

Let not "I dare not" wait upon "I would."

Trifles make perfection, but perfection is no trifle.

A Maternity Hospital has been organized in Buffalo, N. Y.

The Prince of Wales is president of the Boys' Home established in memory of General Gordon, the hero of the Soudan.

The contracts have been let for the erection of a soldiers' and sailors home, at Quincy, Illinois; the appropriation for this purpose is $200,000.

Fitch's Home, at Noroton, Conn., publishes no annual report. It supports, out of its revenues, about twenty veterans, and cares for fifty more, who are maintained by the State.

Prince N. Usipoff has given 5,000 roubles ($2,500) towards building an asylum for poor children in St. Petersburg, who have been discharged from the hospital for children with chronic diseases.

According to Dr. Carl Seiter, some persons have a defect of smell analogous to color-blindness. One person finds that to him violets smell like garlic, while all other odors are correctly discerned by him.

> The tear down childhood's cheek that flows,
> Is like the dew-drop on the rose;
> When next the summer breeze comes by,
> And waves the bush, the flower is dry.—SCOTT.

Twenty-five names of persons claiming to be more than 100 years old were reported by the enumerators who took the inter-decennial census in Iowa: the oldest was Jacob Heike, of Grundy county, who gave his age as 121.

The Sisters of the Good Shepherd, at Newark, N. J., are putting up an addition, on Thirteenth Avenue, to cost $35,000; and the Little Sisters of the Poor are doing the same, on Ninth Avenue, at a cost of $40,000.

Senna recommends the use of sea-water in making bread for children suffering from scrofulous affections. After the dough is mixed, it should be allowed to stand for several hours before baking. The taste is said not to be disagreeable.—*Med. Record.*

In view of the large number of criminal cases in which lawyers plead, on behalf of their clients, alcoholic dementia, the French government has instructed all prefects in France to report on the effects of drunkenness in inciting to crime; and the French War Minister has instituted an inquiry as to the action of liquor in reducing the height of young men, and debilitating them so as to render them unfit for military service.

CEMENT FOR IRON.—Take equal parts of sulphur and white lead, with about a sixth of borax; incorporate the three, so as to form a homogeneous mass. Before applying, wet it with strong sulphuric acid. Place a thin layer between the two pieces of iron to be united, and press them tightly together. In five days it will be perfectly dry, all trace of the cement will have vanished, and the iron will have the appearance of having been welded together.—*English Mechanic.*

Dr. Bertillon reported to the Fifth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography at the Hague, in 1884, that of 1,000 unmarried women in Ireland, 6 had offspring; in Holland, 9; in Switzerland, 11; in France and England, 17; in Italy, 20; in Sweden, 22; in Prussia, 23; in Denmark, 29; and in Bavaria, 41. Of illegitimate children, there were, of 1,000 births in Ireland, 30; in Holland, 38; in Belgium, 53; in England, 61; in Prussia, 66; in Italy, 73; in France, 75; in Denmark, 76; and in Bavaria, 96.—*Sanitarian.*

The Onondaga County Orphan Asylum, at Syracuse, N. Y., is rejoicing in an elegant new building, which is large and spacious and is pronounced by Dr. Hoyt and Mr. Fanning to be "almost perfect in its appointments." One of the State commissioners of public charities, who paid the institution an official visit of inspection, reported that he found the children "better nourished than in any asylum he had visited." At the Christmas festivities, hilarity is said to have clasped hands with charity. The average number of children cared for is 140, and the annual current expenses about $11,000. An institution paper is talked of. The annual meeting occurred May 5th.

On the 6th of April, at a meeting at Exeter Hall, London, an association was inaugurated, having for its object the promotion, in concert with boards of guardians and others, of the boarding out of orphan and deserted children; also the facilitating exchange of information between the several boarding-out committees, and an inquiry into the operation of the various systems of boarding out, and general coöperation in all measures for the promotion of boarding out, and for the welfare of the children thus provided for. Lord Cranbrook was elected president of the association, and among the vice-presidents are the Archbishop of Canterbury, Cardinal Manning, and Mr. Goschen.—*Lancet.*